THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JUNE, 1804.

ART. I. *Travels in Turkey, Asia-Minor, Syria, and across the Desert into Egypt*, during the Years 1799, 1800, and 1801, in Company with the Turkish Army, and the British Military Mission. To which are annexed Observations on the Plague, and on the Diseases prevalent in Turkey, and a Meteorological Journal. By William Wittman, M.D. of the Royal Artillery, and Surgeon to the British Military Mission acting with the Army of the Grand Vizier. 4to. pp. 600, and 22 Plates. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips. 1803.

IF our government did not attach a professed corps of [illegible]*ns* to our military expedition to the East, it has been made evident from the several publications which have originated in that enterprise, that it included men of science and curious observation, who were capable of availing themselves of every opportunity for collecting useful knowlege, and of making us better acquainted with regions which as yet are very imperfectly known to Europeans. Syria and Egypt having been the theatre of the various singular and important transactions recorded in sacred history, our curiosity is peculiarly excited by the relations of the modern traveller into those regions. He carries us to places with the names of which our ears have been familarized from our childhood, and respecting which our religion induces us to wish for particular information. The inquisitive are desirous of comparing existing facts with antient details; of ascertaining the present state of one country which is described by the antient Jews as "flowing with milk and honey," or as possessed of the most uncommon fertility, and of another which stands prominent in the earliest pages of history. Many travellers have endeavoured to satisfy this general desire for information: but, as we conceive that a variety of interesting particulars yet remain to be told, we are prepared to receive every new observer with complacency and satisfaction.

Our recent publications respecting Egypt and Syria have this advantage over their predecessors, that the circumstances which they record were witnessed by gentlemen who enjoyed oppor-

tunities for research which are not attainable by the ordinary wanderer. It has been remarked that the French *literati* were protected by their army; and it is equally proper to observe that, as Dr. Wittman travelled in company with and making a part of the army which was dispatched from Constantinople to co-operate with our forces in Egypt, his privileges were those of a native Turk:—he had full leisure for observation on the characters of the people, and on the soil, climate, and natural productions of the countries through which the route lay. From the size of this volume, which is in the form of a journal, it will be apparent that Dr. W. was not an idle traveller; though, in certain instances, we should have been better satisfied had he been more diligent in his inquiries and more minute in his details. Lest, however, too much should be expected from the present work, the author thus speaks of his undertaking:

'In the course of his travels, he saw many things which, to him at least, were uncommon; and he was in the habit (partly to relieve his mind from the irksomeness of his situation, and partly in the hope of gratifying his particular friends) to note down whatever appeared worthy of remark. On communicating these notes to those for whom they were originally intended, it was their wish to see them in print, as containing matter which, according to their partial opinion, was calculated to interest a still wider circle. Such a task, when he commenced his journal, he did not expect he should have to encounter; and this statement, in every respect consonant to truth, he trusts will shield him from the severity of criticism, which is most properly directed against such publications as are, from the first, intended to challenge the approbation of the Public.

'He cannot flatter himself with the hope that these pages will be found equally agreeable to all readers. To some they will appear in parts defective, as they undoubtedly are; to others, the author may seem occasionally prolix, in recording the particulars of conversations held with different individuals, either on the civil or on the military state of the countries in which he resided. Yet those books are perhaps the most instructive, and not the least entertaining, which record things as they really happened. "Truth," says an admired author, "needs no ornament; and in my opinion what she borrows from the pencil is deformity."

The journal commences with a short account of the British Military Mission sent to the Grand Seignor in 1799, which was designed to join the Turkish army and to co-operate with it against the common enemy. General Koehler and a few officers under him were appointed to act on this occasion; Dr. W. was associated with them in the capacity of surgeon to the mission; and they were to rendezvous at Constantinople; to which place the chiefs of the party went over-land, and the rest by sea. The author was among the latter; and he relates the particulars of his voyage from Gibraltar through the straits

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of Messina, and among the Greek islands, to the capital of the Turkish Empire: where he arrived and joined the mission, June 14, 1799.

Full leisure having been afforded to Dr. W. for the examination of this city, a description of it is first given:

'Constantinople, comprehending its suburbs, some of which are so large that several authors have been led to consider them as distinct cities, is of very considerable extent. It is in the form of an unequal triangle, having one of its sides towards the sea of Marmora, another in front of the harbour, and the third towards the land. Being built on seven hills, on the sides of which the houses are placed, it has at a little distance the appearance of a vast amphitheatre, stretching itself over a very extensive territory. The mosques, or places of public worship, of which the principal one was the celebrated Christian church of St. Sophia, which name it still retains, are numerous, and several of them very large. They are not provided with bells; but each of them has one or several minarets, on which the muczins, or criers, are stationed to call the people to prayers. These minarets bear a strong resemblance in their form to a tall candle, having an extinguisher at its top.

'Nothing can be grander or more beautifully picturesque than the external appearance of Constantinople and of its vicinity. Within it has less to recommend it, the houses being but indifferently built, and the streets very narrow.

'The Seraglio, or palace of the Grand Sultan, occupies the space on which the ancient city of Byzantium formerly stood, at the extremity of the angle formed by the sea of Marmora and the Bosphorus. It is by far the most beautiful part of Constantinople, the projecting land on which it stands being covered by groves of cypress trees, which give a sublime effect to the magnificent buildings of which the palace is composed.

'On the opposite side of the harbour, the towns, or more properly speaking, suburbs of Galata, Pera, and Tophana, are situated; and, on the Asiatic side, opposite the point of the seraglio, stands the town or suburb of Scutari. From the great sloping of the hills on which they are placed, these suburbs have a very fine and romantic appearance, the houses seeming as if built tier upon tier. Being, however, principally constructed of wood, which is soon fretted and decayed by the intense heat of the sun in such a climate, the grandeur of the scene is diminished on a near approach. Between them cypress trees rear their lofty heads, and add greatly to the sublimity of the general effect. The cemeteries are also thickly planted with these trees; and the scene is thus rendered beautifully picturesque. In short, the external view of Constantinople, and of its environs, is at once sublime and pleasing; and with this view the traveller ought to content himself, since, on a nearer inspection, he will find little to gratify his curiosity, or to excite his admiration.

'The Bosphorus, a beautiful canal, or narrow sea, from a mile to a mile and a half in breadth, and about twenty miles in length, forms the communication between the Euxine, or Black Sea,

and the sea of Marmora, the ancient Propontis. In the formation of its banks, which are lofty, and lined with an exquisite variety of beautiful trees and shrubs, nature has been lavish in the extreme. Several villages are interspersed; and at the sea-side the Grand Seignor, the Vizier, Capitan Pacha, &c. have elegant kiosques, or pleasure houses, for their summer residence. Throughout the whole extent of the canal the highest state of cultivation prevails, its shores being covered with vineyards, gardens, and orchards, containing a great diversity of the finest fruits. Were the Turks possessed of a taste at all proportionate to the advantages which this situation affords, and at the same time placed under a government similar to our own, the banks of the Bosphorus would become one of the most beautiful spots in the world. They at present lose all the beauties of the perspective from the eminences, their villages being built close to the canal side, with stages or landing places projecting over the water. There the inhabitants assemble, and remain for several hours together, smoking their pipes, and enjoying the cool refreshing breeze.'—

'I was confirmed in the observation I had made on my first arrival, that the streets of Constantinople are, without exception, narrow, ill paved, and dirty. Almost all the houses are built with windows projecting to the streets, which nearly touch those of their opposite neighbours; this custom greatly obstructs the free circulation of air through the streets. The roofs of the houses are miserably ill covered; they are formed of a reddish tile, loosely put on without any fastening; occasionally loose stones are laid on here and there, but a cat running over the top of a house will frequently untile it; consequently they are wretchedly constructed for rainy or tempestuous weather. The external appearance of the houses is at the same time heavy and dismal, all the ornaments being reserved for the interior.'

Subjoined is an account of the village of Buyukdere, 12 miles from Constantinople, on the European side, near the Bosphorus, where the mission took up their residence. This spot was not only beautiful in point of situation, but was plentifully and cheaply supplied with the necessaries of life:

'At Buyukdere, mutton, beef, and bread are plentiful, and sold at a very reasonable price; as are also poultry of every description. Eggs are in great plenty; but the cheese and butter are very indifferent. The wines, both red and white, made at Buyukdere, are very cheap, the *oke* (which weighs two pounds ten ounces, or somewhat more than an English bottle) being sold at from eight to ten paras, that is, from four pence to five pence English money. The vegetables, which are pretty nearly of the same kinds as in England, namely, broad beans, French beans, pease, cabbages, cucumbers, gourds, water melons, &c. are in great abundance. The fruits, which are no less so, consist of peaches, apricots, pears, apples, (which, however, are all very insipid), figs, cherries, pomegranates, red currants, wood strawberries, and grapes. Besides these, there is a profusion of walnuts, filberds, and hazle nuts. As there is no procuring

procuring malt liquor here, the principal beverage is wine and water. The milk is good and tolerably cheap. The oxen are small, and are for the greater part of a light grey colour; they are employed, in common with the buffalo, an animal very unseemly to the view, in ploughing, for draught, &c. Here, as well as at Constantinople, Pera, and indeed in all this part of Turkey, the dogs are very numerous. They do not appear to belong to any particular masters, are very ferocious, and occasionally very troublesome.

'A very agreeable dish called *yourt*, of which the natives are very fond, is made here, and brought in with the dessert. It is prepared by allowing a certain portion of milk to become sour, and throwing into new milk as much of this acidulated fluid as will curdle it in a slight degree. It is then eaten with sugar, is very palatable, and, mixed with strawberries, becomes a good substitute for cream. The milk sold here is generally a mixture, being drawn from goats, sheep, cows, and buffaloes.'

During the author's stay in the neighbourhood of Constantinople, he visited the plain of Troy, the antient Sigæum, &c.; but he makes no remarks on these subjects that are peculiarly worthy of notice. His attention as a medical man is particularly directed to the great and sudden variations in the state of the atmosphere, which he considers as having a strong tendency to the production of disease; and the different heights of the thermometer are accurately marked.

In proof of the degrading superstitions and ignorance of the Turks, Dr. W. relates that the launch of a ship of war was delayed till a favourable report of an opportunity had been made by the astrologers and dealers in magic; and he very judiciously asks, 'Can such a people be formidable?' Indeed, the whole military detail exhibited in this journal, as far as it respects the Turks, very clearly proves that, had it not been for the British army, the French must have retained Egypt in their possession.

As a set-off in favour of the Turkish characters, the Doctor relates an anecdote of judicial sagacity after the manner of our old friend Sancho Pança:

'A case of usury was brought before the Grand Vizier. A Turk had lent to another a sum of money equal to a thousand pounds sterling, at an interest which was immoderate even in this country, where the legal interest, in some instances, amounts to twenty per cent. The borrower kept this money in use during ten years, when he refunded it to the lender, but refused to pay the interest, on the ground of its illegality. The Grand Vizier acknowledged the justice of his plea; but with great ready wit, and a nice discernment of the case, ordered him to lend to the Turk, whose debtor he had been, without interest, an equal sum for the same space of time.'

Exploring the Asiatic coast opposite to Constantinople, Dr. W. necessarily met with many vestiges of antient magnificence. 'We landed, (says he) near the ruins of an antient imperial

palace, over which we walked.' Nothing more is added, and such *extreme* brevity is very mortifying and unsatisfactory.

A second navigation of the Grecian archipelago enabled Dr. W. to visit St. John's retreat, of which a short account is subjoined:

'Patmos has an excellent harbour; and the town being situated on the loftiest part of the island, makes a pretty appearance in entering. The houses being constructed of a white free-stone, have a peculiarly neat aspect, very different from what we had hitherto seen in this quarter of the globe. It has been calculated that the town has an elevation of nearly five hundred feet above the level of the sea. In its centre is a large convent dedicated to St. John the evangelist, who was banished to this island. It was here that he wrote the Revelations; and after we had landed, we saw, in walking to the summit of the hill, the grotto in which he is said to have composed them. We next visited the convent, which has a resident bishop, with a considerable number of monks, and in which is a college for the education of the young men of the Greek persuasion. Over the gateway of the entrance are three large bells; and the chapel within has a neat mosaic pavement. In ascending the island, the road winds considerably, and presents otherwise great difficulties, insomuch that it cost us no little labour to reach the summit. In those parts of the island which the inhabitants were able to cultivate, we saw several small fields, or patches of corn, banked up with stones to prevent the soil from being washed away by the rains: it appeared, however, that it was capable of producing but an inconsiderable quantity of grain.

'The town, which contains about two hundred houses, all of them provided with balconies, is, as well as the rest of the island, inhabited exclusively by Greeks. The women are to the men in the proportion of five to one. They are pretty; and wear on their heads a high turban of a peculiar form, made of white crape, a narrow slip of which falls down behind, and nearly reaches the ground. The inhabitants procure sheep and cattle from the neighbouring islands, their own being so barren as to make but a scanty return to the labour and industry they bestow upon it.'

Dr. W. corroborates the former statements of the massacre of the Turkish garrisons of El Arish and Jaffa by Bonaparte's orders, saying that he has 'seen the skeletons of these unfortunate victims;' and with regard to the poisoning of the French sick troops, he informs us that 'not only was such a circumstance positively asserted to have happened, but that while in Egypt an individual was pointed out to them, as having been the executioner of these diabolical commands.'

We were amused in attending the author in his progress through the Holy Land; yet we must confess that we should have been more gratified, had he detailed fewer of the pious frauds practised by priests and monks on credulous travellers

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to Jerusalem and its vicinity, and had penetrated to the Dead Sea and given the result of his own observations. At one time, the Dead Sea was in his view; yet he does not visit its shores, but contents himself with a strange tale of the monks of the convent of Ramla, often related by them, but credited only by weak minds:

'We were told by the reverend fathers belonging to our convent, that the mountain which is contiguous to the Dead Sea, exudes a bituminous matter, with which the sea itself is occasionally overspread. They produced a specimen of this substance, which had the appearance of common pitch. I do not wish to accuse them of dealing in the marvellous, but they surprised us not a little when, in speaking of the noxious quality of the air in the vicinity of the Dead Sea, they asserted, that notwithstanding the fruits and vegetables which grew there were very fine in appearance, they were destitute of all flavour; and that the oranges in particular, instead of containing a pleasant and refreshing juice, were filled with a cineritious matter. The superior assured us that he had sent several of these oranges to Europe as a curiosity.'

Instead of Dr. W.'s candour in not wishing to accuse them of dealing in the marvellous, it would have been more in character for him as a philosopher to have questioned the fact; and to have '*marvelled*' that, of such wonderful productions as 'oranges filled with cineritious matter,' they should not have reserved a single specimen to shew to strangers.

We have not room for the descriptions of Jerusalem, Nazareth, Bethlehem, &c. but we shall copy the picture of the principal features of the country:

'Syria may in general be considered as a mountainous country; but the part bordering on Jaffa has several very extensive plains, which are intersected, at certain distances, with moderate heights. In approaching Jerusalem, after having proceeded to the other side of Ramla, the mountains are very lofty, and, having but a slender superficies of earth to cover their rocky prominences, are exclusively adapted to the cultivation of olive-trees, which take root in their very clefts, and hide the naked appearance they would otherwise exhibit.

'In general the country is but thinly covered with trees, and has few woods, or thickets. In the parts where there is no texture of soil, but merely a white loose sand, not a tree nor shrub is to be seen.

'To the north side of Jaffa, a small river, which empties itself into the sea, presents itself at the distance of two or three miles. It is the only one which I met with in Syria: it is probable, however, that others may have been formed, subsequently to the excursions I made into the interior, by the abundant falls of rain I have had occasion to notice.

'From the information I was able to collect, as well as from my own personal observation, I could not learn that either mines or eruptions of volcanic matter are to be met with in Syria.

'The soil in many parts, in those more especially bordering on the deserts, consists almost exclusively of a fine white sand, the reflection from which is extremely painful to the sight. This barren territory extends, to the northward, beyond Jaffa. It contains, however, in common with the other parts of Syria, several fertile spots, covered with a rich black mould, which very copiously repay the labour bestowed on them. On the rocky grounds an inconsiderable portion of calcareous earth is found blended with marl.

'Wherever the land is susceptible of cultivation, and has not been neglected, it affords abundant crops of wheat, barley, Indian corn (dourra), tobacco, cotton, and other productions. Fruits and vegetables are in equal abundance. Among the former are pomegranates, figs, oranges, lemons, citrons of an uncommonly large size, melons, grapes, and olives. The melons are large, and have a delicious flavour; as have also the grapes, of which we partook so late as the month of December, when we found they still retained their exquisite flavour. I have already adverted to the uncommon size of the water-melons, many of which weigh from twenty to thirty pounds. They are a great and valuable resource to the inhabitants, who are so passionately fond of them, that, during the summer months, they form a great part of their subsistence. Notwithstanding they are as cooling and refreshing, as grateful to the taste, I was surprised to see the natives eat them in such immoderate quantities, without experiencing any unpleasant consequences.

'Among the vegetable productions for the table may be ranged the coulcas, the okre, or bannier, the coussa, a species of gourd, the tomata, and a kind of bean which has some resemblance to our French bean. The coulcas is a root brought from Bairout, Acre, Sidon, and Damietta, which when cooked, is in taste not unlike the potatoe, from which it differs in appearance by its darker hue and less regular shape. In its raw state it is extremely acrid, and produces on the mouth and fauces, when tasted, a sensation of pricking and smarting, such as is caused, under the same circumstances, by the Arum root. It is considered by the inhabitants as a wholesome and agreeable vegetable, and, being scraped and boiled, enters into the composition of many of their dishes. The okre is a fine mucilaginous vegetable, which gives an excellent flavour to the soups.

'To the above list may be added other vegetables, the quality of which is excellent, such as cabbages, cauliflowers, spinage, lettuce, endive, turnips, cucumbers, radishes, and onions; the latter extremely mild. Both fruits and vegetables, as well as all other marketable commodities, are sold by weight.

'The grounds in Syria are in general open. Where enclosures have been attempted, they are fenced in with the prickly pear-tree.

'Numerous flocks of goats and sheep are distributed over the plains, as well as in the mountainous territory. The tails of the latter are uncommonly large, resembling those of the sheep of the Cape of Good Hope. Many of them have an extraordinary length of ear; but this observation applies still more particularly to the goats, an ear of one of which I had the curiosity to measure, and found it to be nine inches in length. The cows and oxen are small, and of a

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reddish hue: large herds of them are driven out in the mornings, to browze in the plains, and in those parts of the mountainous territory, where a scanty superficies of soil, spread over the rocks, affords a feeble hope of pasturage.'

From this description, it may be seen that Syria, the antient Palestine, is a country of which the vegetable productions depend much on the state of cultivation. Under a wise government and an active people, its fertility may be carried to an incalculable extent: but under the neglect which results from scanty population and despotic institutions, sterility will ensue. Hence the difference between the land of Judea in the flourishing state of the Jewish people, and the modern Syria.

Frequent examples are adduced to shew the prevalence of the plague in Syria, and of its devastating effects; yet the temperature of the air is represented as salutary: in proof of which, Dr. W. mentions 'the very rare occurrence of pulmonary diseases, as well as the numerous instances of longevity among the inhabitants, who frequently attain the age of an hundred, and, in some instances, of an hundred and ten years, and upwards. Were they in a more civilized state, and united in a social compact under a good government, they would become very numerous and powerful, the Syrian women, who marry very young, being remarkably prolific.'

The march over the desert was attended with many hardships and disasters, independently of the ravages of the plague; to which latter the Turks are extremely insensible:

'Ibrahim Bey (says Dr. W.) was positively encamped on the burial ground of El-Arish, where the bodies of several thousands of persons, who had fallen victims to that disease during the course of the last six weeks were interred. His own tent covered a part of the graves!

'This being the fourth day our unfortunate horses had passed without food, we made a strong representation in their behalf, in consequence of which a small proportion of damaged biscuit-dust and decayed rice was issued to them. To such an extremity had these animals been reduced by hunger, that they had eaten their halters, together with the dung, and whatever lay within their reach. Several of them, as well as many of the camels, had perished. Our own situation, reduced as we were to bad biscuit and water, was almost as deplorable.'

As the French, in passing the desert, have mentioned a phænomenon noticed in scripture and by antient writers, to which they have given the name of *Mirage*, we shall subjoin our countryman's account of it:

'The progress we had made on this day's march was about fifteen miles; and in pursuing our route we were gratified by the view of the surprising visual deception, which the French term *mirage*, and

which has been described with great ingenuity by Monge, of the French National Institute. It is peculiar to the desert, and presents the distant appearance of water with such an air of truth and reality, that the shadows of the camels who were in advance, seemed to be reflected on the apparent watery surface. To give a more extraordinary effect to the illusion, the bodies of these animals appeared to be narrowed and elongated upwards, so as to give them the appearance of trunks of trees, the branches of which had been lopped off. The most elevated of the distant sand hills represented light clouds; while the smaller ones appeared like ships under a press of sail in the midst of beautiful lakes. This phenomenon was more particularly apparent on the levels, which were in some parts covered with a saline substance, finely crystallized, and very shining and brilliant.'

Having lately made large extracts from books on the antiquities of Egypt, we shall not follow this writer in his visits to catacombs and pyramids: but we shall extract the particulars of a short conversation with an Abyssinian priest, which induced Dr. W. to give more credit to Mr. Bruce's accounts than they generally receive:

'On the 25th I had a particular conversation with an Abyssinian priest, recently arrived from his own country, who was about to leave Cairo for Jerusalem, from religious motives, and whose details relative to his native territory were extremely interesting. He assured me that the indigenous inhabitants still persevered in their custom of eating raw flesh, a luxury in which, however, the priests were not allowed to participate, but were, in conformity to their religious tenets, obliged to cook the meats necessary to their subsistence. He calculated that his return to Abyssinia would occupy a space of three months. In the course of our conversation it appeared that he was familiarly acquainted with many of the plants and animals, of which the celebrated Bruce has in his Travels given engravings and written descriptions. Mr. Bruce's book being at hand, the engravings, &c. were shewn to him, and he gave to the animals and other productions the names which Bruce had annexed to them. I was thus enabled to satisfy myself of the accuracy of a part of what has been so strongly questioned in the accounts which the above traveller has published.'

This evidence, however, is not conclusive, unless it can be proved that the Abyssinian had not previously seen Bruce's book.

At Cairo, the author notices the procession accompanying the sacred carpet designed for covering the house of God at Mecca:

'The procession which accompanied the camel destined to carry the cloth, or carpet, with which the caaba, or house of God, at Mecca, was to be covered, took place on the morning of the 29th, and afforded to the inhabitants of Cairo a very grand and solemn spectacle. It was preceded by the chiaous of the Vizier, who was immediately followed by the cadi, or judge, accompanied by great numbers

numbers of dervises with their sacred banners. Next followed several of the Grand Vizier's principal officers, with bands of music, and colours flying. Taher Pacha, and a considerable number of armed men, attended the procession. Green cloths, elegantly embroidered in gold with Turkish characters, were carried on biers. The camel on whose back the sacred cloth was borne, had plumes of feathers on the head, and over the body an embroidered green cloth. In passing through the streets, the inhabitants displayed a great eagerness to touch a portion of the cloth. Other camels, each of them covered with a plain green cloth, followed, with the boxes in which the treasure was to be contained. The priests, as they proceeded, chaunted hymns from the Koran; and the procession was closed by a body of armed men on horseback.'

Dr. W. appears to have been skilful and assiduous in his medical profession, and the Vizier is said to have duly expressed his obligations. He thus adverts to this circumstance:

'The labours of the British military mission acting with the Turkish army, drew at length towards a conclusion, after a series of painful, harassing, and critical events, many of which cannot, from obvious motives, meet the public eye. The patience, forbearance, and circumspection of the individuals engaged in this long and perilous service, were manifested on a variety of trying occasions, which required all the energy inherent in the British military character.

'I cannot, in justice and gratitude to his Highness, omit mentioning, though it savours a little of egotism, that the Vizier, on this occasion, did me the honour to express his acknowledgments and thanks in a letter of recommendation which he sent me, to be delivered to the English ambassador, Lord Elgin, at Constantinople, for the medical assistance which he, as well as many of his people, had received during our connection with his army.'

After the termination of the mission, Dr. Wittman departs again for Constantinople, and is subject in a sea voyage to new adventures: but we must briefly dismiss these supplemental rambles; and indeed we have already been forced to pass over numerous interesting remarks, which occur in the course of the volume, and for which we could not afford room.

Embarking March 24, 1802, on board a corvette, Dr. W. left Alexandria, and was forced by stormy weather to take refuge in the island of Castel Rosso, the antient Cistene; whence he proceeded to the islands of Rhodes, Stancho, Samos, and Scio. In the excursions of the author and his companions on this island, he says:

'We proceeded to the spot where the celebrated poet Homer is said to have kept his school. Whatever disagreements there may be among historians relative to the birth place of this extraordinary man, it seems to be generally allowed that he had chosen Scio as his residence at the time he followed the avocation of a school-master. Our road, to the north of the town, was along the

sea-shore; and after a walk of nearly two hours and a half, our guide conducted us to a rock, at a little distance from the sea, which, as we were told it contained the classic object of our visit, we ascended with a satisfaction bordering on enthusiasm. In the centre of the rock a kind of table is hewn out, behind which it is conjectured the orator was posted; and around it we perceived the remains of the seats, likewise hewn out of the rock, where the scholars are supposed to have been seated. Having procured several small fragments of the mutilated table, and of other parts of the rock, as memorials of our visit, we retired to a groupe of fine trees in the vicinity, to repose from our fatigues, and shelter ourselves from the scorching heat, beneath their shade. Near to this cluster of trees there is a fountain of cool and delicious water. It is one of the favourite retreats of the Turks and other inhabitants of the island during the warmer months. Several neat villages are interspersed on the sides of the mountains, surrounded by well cultivated enclosures of corn, vines, lentils, and other vegetable productions.' —

'From beneath the rock, which I have already described as being the site of the school of Homer, a spring of water issues, which is celebrated for its purity and medicinal properties. It is resorted to by all the valetudinarians of Scio, who ascribe to this water a diuretic quality. It is indeed so much extolled, and held in such general estimation, that large quantities of it are occasionally sent to Constantinople, for the use of the Grand Seignor and of the Seraglio. Every part of the island is supplied with delicious water, which is conveyed by aqueducts from place to place for the use of the inhabitants of the different villages.'

Hence Dr. W. shaped his course to Tenedos, on which he found fine flocks of sheep, cheap mutton, and wine of a superior quality. On the 21st of May he again arrived at the village of Buyukdere near Constantinople; quitting this place, he embarked on the Black-Sea, and proceeded up the Danube to Vienna; where he visited the cabinet of Natural History belonging to Dr. Gall, and remarks on his singular doctrine relative to the brain. Journeying through Germany and Holland, and then once more taking shipping, he landed at Harwich, July 21, 1802, full of gratitude for the protection of Divine Providence during the course of his long and perilous travels.

Subjoined are a medical Journal in Syria and Egypt, from July 1800 to March 1802, an Historical Journal of the Plague, a Paper on Ophthalmy, and a Meteorological Journal.

On the subject of the Plague, Dr. Wittman, without directly espousing any particular hypothesis, wishes his brethren of the faculty to attend to facts:

'In the most violent attacks of plague, the vital principle appears to be suddenly, in a great measure, extinguished; or otherwise so much enfeebled, as to render the system capable of resisting the first shock of the disease only for a very short time.

'Examples

'Exsmples of this kind occurred. Several of the sepoys of the Indian army in Egypt, and others, appeared to sink under the first impression of the contagion, their attack being sudden, instantaneous, and violent. I was informed that several dropt down when in the ranks, and died within a few hours afterwards.

'A civil artificer died after thirty six hours illness.

'A choarbadgi, or colonel of Janissaries, died at the expiration of two days, within our buildings at Cairo. The death of these two individuals was instantaneous, and without a struggle.

'The plague may be defined to be a disease *sui generis*, which can affect persons more than once in their lives; and, from a variety of circumstances, is evidently contagious.

'The most evident and leading symptoms which attend this dreadful malady, are head-ach; more or less fever; thirst; generally an intense or burning internal heat about the præcordia; nausea, and occasional vomiting; the vessels of the eyes are turgid, accompanied with diarrhœa (which is often a troublesome and dangerous symptom); hæmorrhages; delirium; petechiæ, and large livid spots cover the body in different parts; buboes in the groin, axillæ, &c.; carbuncles; an early and great prostration of strength, &c. &c.

'Sometimes the disease is ushered in suddenly and violently; at others the symptoms commence more slowly, and with more moderation. This variety and manner in the mode of attack may probably depend upon some particular disposition or constitution of the subject, or nature of the prevailing epidemic.

'Upon the decline of the plague season, several patients are seen to recover: the symptoms of the disease at this period are more moderate, and favourable to recovery. We had examples of this kind while with the Ottoman army at Jaffa, &c. in Syria. The same fact is observed at Constantinople. Although it has been noticed that the plague does not frequently attack the same person more than once in the same pestiferous season, yet there are instances where this has happened, and where the relapses which have occurred have proved fatal.'—

'It is generally remarked, that a deviation from a light diet under this disease, and after its recent disappearance, is frequently productive of mischief, in as much as it favours a relapse, or protracts recovery.

'The danger is proportioned to the diminution of vital energy, and extent of fever. Deaths happen from the first to the seventh, and even eleventh days of the disease; the most frequent from the fourth to the eleventh day: yet fatal terminations occur often at the expiration of twelve or twenty-four hours. Among the youths and middle aged there is said to be the greatest number of deaths.'—

'From all that one has seen and heard, it would appear either that the virus of plague does not always possess the same activity and force, or that certain persons are occasionally insusceptible of its action: and also, that from the sudden appearance as well as termination of the disease, the necessity of some powerful agent is implied to put the contagion into action, and give it its full force, as well as to destroy its effects when present, leaving, however, a sufficiency of the

contagious

contagious principle latent within the country, to propagate the disease, whenever such circumstances shall favour its action, and call it forth, without having recourse to the annual generation of fresh matter, or virus, as necessary to account for the re appearance of disease at each plague season.

'May it be imagined that this agent resides in the atmosphere? But whether this peculiar constitution of the air consists in a superabundance, or in a diminution of the ordinary proportion of oxygene in the atmosphere, or in the combination of some peculiar gas, or gasses, diffused in it; or whether the whole may be brought about by variations of temperature only, connected with moisture or dryness of the air, I must confess my inability to determine. Time alone may unfold this mystery. Indeed, a series of eudiometrical and other observations, continued for several years, at the different places in the country, might possibly throw some light upon the subject.

'I am much disappointed to find that so little light has been thrown on plague by the results of the French practitioners in Egypt.

'I should have been happy if, after several years residence in a pestiferous country, where I constantly searched for useful information, my labours had been rewarded in the discovery of an improved, or more successful treatment of plague. No such happiness has attended me; and as my own experience is, I think, too limited to presume to lay down a plan of cure, I must in preference content myself in the relation of the experiments and practice of others, which came to my knowledge while in the country.

'For my own part, a prompt and early use of remedies appears to me of the utmost importance: indeed, the interval between the seizure and death is frequently so very short, that the trial for remedies is very limited. I treated the several cases which fell under my care, as far as it was practicable, in the manner adopted in fevers of the malignant kind, with this difference, that in the second case I conjoined the trial of oily frictions. Although I cannot venture to speak generally of the treatment of this disease, yet I would hazard an opinion, that where proper establishments are formed for the reception of pestiferous patients, with proper attendants, a cautious and fair trial of mercury and the oxygenated remedies would merit attention.

'The practice of a Venetian doctor, who lately died in Cairo, and who was much celebrated for his professional skill and prognosis in plague, was, first to bleed, but never after the expiration of thirty six hours from attack. He administered large doses of camphor, and gave the patient a lump of it to hold constantly in the hand He attended much to diet; gave rice water, chicken broth, boiled cucumbers, lettuces, &c and, as a cordial, occasional small quantities of a diluted spirit; but always forbade wine. He entertained the opinion that a certain disposition or susceptibility in the patient was necessary to the reception of the disease.

'A free perspiration has been generally found useful; copious perspirations are the sensible effects of the oily frictions, and are excited without distress or inconvenience to the suffering sick.

'Our

'Our interpreter, who was seized at El-Arish with plague before the Vizier's army arrived there, was seen and treated by a Turkish doctor, who had great confidence in a strong spirit which is distilled with aniseeds, and is in the country called rackey. He administered this spirit repeatedly and liberally in the day time to his patient; whose symptoms of plague were accompanied by a large carbuncle formed in the side, and a bubo in the axilla. As soon as I saw him, I recommended the bark liberally to him, and cataplasms to be applied to the sore in the side, which was very extensive from the repeated sloughings that had occurred since the opening of the carbuncle. One of the eyes was severely inflamed, and it was long before he recovered his perfect intellects as well as his sight.

'The partial and unsteady manner in which plague patients appeared to be treated among the Turks, I confess afforded but little chance of success in the removal of the disease.

'Bleeding, as a remedy in plague, has been the subject of much dispute among celebrated physicians. While at Jaffa, it was the practice of the Venetian doctors to make use of blood-letting. Many patients died suddenly after the operation: the deaths appeared hastened by the evacuation of blood.

'The indiscriminate employ of bleeding may be of serious consequences in weakening those natural powers of the system which might be usefully exerted to the subduction of disease.

'I used the oily frictions in the manner recommended and adopted by Mr. Baldwin, late English consul at Alexandria.

'A typhus patient evidently derived great benefit from the use of the oily frictions. The result of my observations and practice with the oil induces me to hope it will be found useful as a preventive. I repeatedly recommended the frictions with oil to the Turks, but all to no purpose. While their prejudices continue, it will be in vain to attempt reform, or to annihilate the disease from among them. At Smyrna they continue to use the oil in plague, and it is said that this mode of treatment is more efficacious than any other. The merchants, however, from whom I collected this account, observe, that the proportional success with the oil is not every year the same. Sometimes the half and more of the infected are saved, at other times not more than a fifth or sixth.'

The paper on Ophthalmy contains many judicious remarks: for which, considering the length of this article, we must refer to the work itself.

This volume is decorated by handsome coloured portraits, exhibiting the costume of the East, (among which is one of the Sultan himself,) views of places, a frontispiece representing the march of the Ottoman Army across the Desert, various maps, and a fac-simile of a Turkish Firman or Passport.

On the whole, the public must feel themselves much obliged to Dr. W. for making them partakers in a gratification which was originally intended only for the circle of his particular friends.

Mo-y.

ART.

ART. II. *Daphnis and Chloe*, a Pastoral Novel, now first selectly Translated into English from the original Greek of Longus. 12mo. pp. 265. 4s. Boards. Vernor and Hood.

By the Rev. C. V. Le Grice

THE anonymous author of this version of Longus has done great justice to the elegant original, not only in what he has translated, but in what he has omitted. Longus was a writer of a genius truly pastoral; and both the terseness of his style and the charming simplicity of the rural life, which he describes, contribute to delight the reader:—but it must be lamented that this author shares the general character of the *erotici scriptores* of the first centuries of our æra, whether Greek or Latin, in the unchaste freedoms and familiarities of the manners which they depict. It would be well if the same censure did not attach to too many writers of this kind in later times, whether in our own country or on the continent. The present translator has judiciously omitted whatever might be thought to sully the beauty of this pastoral tale; and, on comparing it with the original, we have great reason for commending his industry and his talents. Although he does not render the Greek, "*verbum verbo fidus*," yet, which is much more to be desired, he generally preserves the sense and spirit of the author; and in some respects, we think that he has done this very happily; as in the expression borrowed from Bloomfield's Farmer's Boy, "wily antics" of the flocks, for "*σκιρτήματα ποιμνίων*." * We extract the passage, as a specimen of the merits of the translation, and as it may convey an idea of the simplicity and elegance of Longus:

'It was the beginning of spring.—Through the woods, the meadows, and the mountains, the flowers were shooting forth amid the buzzing murmurs of the bee, the song of birds, and the "wily antics" of the sheep.—The sheep were skipping on the mountains, the bees flew buzzing through the meadows, and the songs of the birds resounded through the bushes.—The tender and susceptible minds of Daphnis and the young shepherdess were inspired with the gaiety of the season: they felt alive to every impression and imitated in sportive sympathy whatever they saw or heard. Hearing the carol of the birds, they sung: seeing the playful skipping of the lambs, they danced: and in imitation of the bees they gathered flowers; some of which they placed carelessly in their bosoms, and others they wove into chaplets and carried them as offerings to the Nymphs.

'They tended their flocks and herds together, and all their occupations were in common to each other. Daphnis frequently collected the sheep, that had strayed, and when a goat had ventured too boldly near a precipice Chloe drove it away. Sometimes one

* Some objectionable phrases, however, have escaped correction; such as 'the Dolphin lay *right* in his path,' p. 165.

took

took the entire management of the pastoral concerns, while the other was engaged in some amusement.

'The usual sports of youth were their common diversion, Chloe neglected her flock to range about in search of flowers, whose stalks she twisted into traps for butterflies; while Daphnis played sweetly from morn till eve upon his Pan's pipe, which he had formed of reeds by perforating the smooth part between the joints, and by glueing them together with soft wax. They made a common banquet of the milk, wine, and food which they brought from home as provision for the day; and you might sooner see one part of the flock divided from the other than Daphnis separate from Chloe.'

Another passage will display some of the accomplishments of Daphnis:

'On the fourth day Dion and Clearista arrived. Their train of male and female servants, and the pack horses, which carried their baggage, occasioned no inconsiderable noise and confusion. The hair of Dion was half grey, but he was tall and handsome; and in strength few young men were able to excel him. In riches he had not many equals, in virtues he had none. On the first day of his arrival he sacrificed to the deities of the place, to Ceres, to Bacchus, to Pan, and to the Nymphs, and poured out one common libation to them all. The next day he amused himself with viewing the ploughs at work in the fields, the vines, whose thick clusters remained ungathered, and the garden in high beauty. Astylus took the blame about the flowers on himself, so that his father upon the whole was highly delighted, praised Lamon exceedingly, and promised to give him his freedom. After viewing the farm he went to see the herds, and their young herdsman.

'Chloe fled to the woods: she was ashamed to appear before so many strangers, and was terrified at so large a company. Daphnis stood still: a shaggy goat-skin served him for a coat, a new-made script was suspended on his shoulder, in one hand he held a cheese, that had just been pressed, and in the other a sucking kid. If ever Apollo tended the herds of Laomedon; such as Apollo must *then* have been, Daphnis was *now*. He never opened his lips, but crimsoned with blushes bowed to the ground, and presented his offerings. "This, Sir, (said Lamon) is the young man who has taken care of your goats. Fifty she goats, and two he goats were the number, which I received from you: this youth has increased the former to an hundred, and the latter to ten. Observe how whole their horns are, and how fat and sleek their bodies appear.—He has made them quite musical;—for all their actions are regulated by the pipe."

'Clearista, who was present, and heard what was said, expressed a wish to see a specimen of what he asserted, and desired Daphnis to pipe to his goats in his usual manner, promising him for his pains a coat and waistcoat, and a new pair of sandals. Daphnis desired the company to sit round, and placed them so as to form a little theatre; he then stood under the shade of a beech tree, took his pipe from his scrip, and just breathed into the reeds. The goats

hearing the sound stood still, and lifted up their heads.—Now he played the tune, that usually soothes them while they feed: they all put down their heads, and began to nibble the grass. Now he blew some notes of a soft and sweeter tone:—all his herd at once laid down. He suddenly changed to a sharper key, and they ran off to the wood, as if a wolf was in sight.—After a short interval he played the melody, that bids them return:—they darted from their covert, ran to his feet, and skipped around him.—Few domestic servants obey their master so well.—Clearista promised to reward the beautiful and musical goat-herd: all the company were surprized at his skill, but she was particularly astonished. The party now returned to the cottage, sat down to dinner, and sent Daphnis part of what was on the table.

'Daphnis invited Chloe to partake, and was delighted with the viands, that had been prepared by a city cook. The flattering prospect, which now opened to him, of success in his marriage suit put him in high spirits; and it was impossible to see a finer youth, than he now appeared. His air and mien were those of a freeman rather than a slave. "His hyacinthine locks in clusters parted," and his eyes shone under his eyebrows like gems set in gold. His face was suffused with the red blush of health, and his mouth displayed teeth as white as ivory. If Venus loved Anchises, well might Chloe love Daphnis.'

The present editor makes no mention of former English versions of this author, neither that of Craigs in the middle of the last century, nor that of George Thornley in the year 1657. As we have not their performances at hand, we are not able to speak of the comparative merits of the three translators: but it is sufficient that we have compared the present with the Greek, and find it the work of a scholar and a man of taste. Since Longus abounds in imitations of the antients, this version might have been set forth with much more of pomp and the garb of learning: but the modesty of the editor appears to have induced him to prefer the humble form of a little novel. Who Longus was, and whether the 5th century be the period justly assigned to him, are very uncertain points. We only know that the manuscript is one of the many which took refuge at Florence, when the capital of the East was surrendered to Mohammed the 2d in 1453. The critical reader will perhaps be struck with the resemblance between Gesner's pastoral romance of Daphnis, and the pastoral of Longus; and he will probably be led to inquire whether Gesner has not borrowed more from this source, which he conceals, than from the Idyllia of Theocritus, which he professes to have imitated.

The translator proposes, if this work should be favourably received, (and we doubt not that it will be so,) to give a version of the Ethiopics of Heliodorus. When freed from certain vicious blandishments, which the discrimination of this editor

editor would undoubtedly expunge, that highly poetical tale is to be valued for inculcating several moral truths of importance. Theagenes is indeed a second Joseph under the solicitations of vice, while the constancy of Chariclea affords a pattern of female virtue; and there is true poetry in "the zone of Chariclea," and in other passages. Perhaps, however, it is not known to the translator that an English version of this romance appeared a few years since, under the title of "The adventures of Theagenes and Chariclea." See Rev. Vol. vii. N. S. p. 352. Man.

ART. III. *Letters on the Study and Use of Antient and Modern History:* containing Observations and Reflections on the Causes and Consequences of those Events which have produced conspicuous Changes in the Aspect of the World, and the general State of Human Affairs. By John Bigland. 12mo. pp. 520. 6s. Boards. Williams, &c. 1804.

THE candid historian, who proposes to exhibit to his readers a genuine picture of the period of which he treats, will avoid, as far as it may be possible, all theoretical discussion and minute investigation into the springs of human action. He will content himself with a simple statement of events; accompanied with as faithful a delineation as his materials allow, both of the characters of distinguished individuals, and of the prominent features of the age.—The *reader* of history, on the contrary, treads a wider and more flowery path. The mere enumeration of facts and dates, of bloody battles and protracted sieges, or even the treasured remembrance of serious or amusing anecdotes, form but a partial and subordinate occupation for him. His office is to apply his knowlege of the past, to the examination of both the causes and consequences of curious and interesting events; to make improving reflections on the vicissitudes of human affairs; to observe the never-failing tendency of certain modes of conduct, in promoting or undermining the prosperity of nations and individuals; and, from a judicious combination of reflections and inquiries, to furnish his mind with important lessons of political, moral, and religious wisdom.

This is the proper business of the reader of history, as far as his ability and opportunities admit. It is, however, essential in the mean time to give a just direction to this faculty of reflection and retrospection, especially in the younger student; to point out proper objects for his notice; and to lead him gradually to exercise a much neglected talent,—the art of *think-*

ing for himself. It is on this account that we consider a judicious survey of the History of the World, if it point out the principal outlines which merit the student's attention, and be also accompanied with remarks of such a nature as we have described above, as a very useful and valuable acquisition; and it gives us great pleasure to observe, that this desirable end is very successfully promoted in the collection of letters now before us.

Mr. Bigland displays in this volume a well cultivated and comprehensive mind. His style is generally correct though not highly polished; his information is extensive; and the many pertinent remarks and inferences, with which he has inriched this summary of general history, meet our cordial approbation. We do not, however, conceive with the author that a work of this nature, however ably it may be executed, is calculated to furnish the uninformed reader with any material stock of historical information. It is true that history abounds with a great portion of matter which is of little comparative importance: but without somewhat more of circumstantial detail than the narrow compass of a single volume allows, it cannot be expected that more than a slight and transient impression should be made on those readers to whom the events, which are cursorily mentioned, are altogether new:—but for those, who have previously made themselves acquainted with historical subjects, a general review of this nature will become a valuable memorial: particularly as it suggests so copious a train of important reflections, whether they are regarded in a political or a *religious* point of view. In the latter respect, every serious and liberal Christian will reap great satisfaction from these letters. Perhaps, in what is remarked on Plato's philosophy, we should arrive at a different conclusion with regard to the similarity of his tenets on certain points with those of our church: but, in general, we have the pleasure of coinciding with the author in his remarks.

This summary is arranged in chronological order, and divided into ten distinct periods:

'Of which the first includes the whole space of time from the earliest records to the subversion of the Babylonian monarchy; the second contains the space between the establishment of the Persian empire, by Cyrus, and its overthrow by Alexander; the third comprises the time which elapsed from the reign of Alexander to the coming of Christ; and the fourth begins at the Christian æra, and ends at the elevation of Constantine to the sovereignty of the Roman empire; the reign of that prince, on account of its singular importance and conspicuous effects, is distinctly considered as the fifth period; from the death of Constantine to the final subversion of the empire constitutes the sixth period; the seventh begins at the subversion of the

Roman empire, and continues to the reign of Charlemagne; the eighth begins at the death of Charlemagne, and continues till the fifteenth century, which was peculiarly characterized by the revival of letters, the invention of printing, the discovery of America, the extension of commerce, &c., the ninth comprehends that age of enterprise and adventure which begins at the middle of the fifteenth, and continues to near the end of the sixteenth century; and the tenth period commences from that important æra, and exhibits a general view of modern times.'

The letters are twenty three in number; and although some of them are of considerable length, the reader will find no occasion to make that circumstance a subject of complaint. A copious list of the contents of each is prefixed to the work, and will prove an useful remembrance after the perusal of a letter; serving not only to imprint the reflections on the reader's mind, but as a clue to guide him to the consideration of the subject in a more ample manner at his own leisure.

In the 15th letter, we meet with these remarks on the merits and defects of Constantinople as the seat of empire; which our readers may combine with Dr. Wittman's description of that city, as extracted in the first article of this Review:

'If we consider, not only the geographical position, but also the topographical situation of Constantinople, with the beautiful and picturesque arrangement of the land and water which form its environs, we shall easily be convinced of the eligibility of its situation, and of the preference due to it when compared with that of Rome. They are both in a temperate climate, Rome being situated in 41°. 50′, North latitude; and Constantinople in 41°, 10′, North latitude. Constantinople is situated on an elevated ground, consisting of gently swelling eminences, rising like terraces one above another, without any of those deep valies which separate the seven hills on which Rome is situated; and which, together with the marshes adjoining to the Tyber, render the air unwholesome. The city was laid out in a triangular form, and filled the triangle formed by the harbour, the Bosphorus, and the Propontis, or Sea of Marmora. The harbour, on the north side of the city, is secure and capacious, being five hundred yards wide at its entrance, from the Bosphorus, and runs seven miles into the land. From the Euxine sea to the Seraglio point, the whole length of the Bosphorus extends about 18 miles, and its ordinary breadth about a mile and half; but in many places somewhat broader, and in some much narrower, with several beautiful windings. In sailing up the Propontis, towards Constantinople, the most enchanting prospects charm the eye of the Navigator, who, from every part of that sea, may discover the high lands of either Thrace or Bythinia, and never loses sight of Mount Olympus, till at last the city itself, rising from the strand, attracts his view, and exhibits the most magnificent appearance. Constantinople may, by its situation, command the commerce of the vast regions of the North, by means of the Euxine sea, and the rivers Don and Dnieper, which

discharge themselves into it. By the streight of the Hellespont, which forms the communication between the Propontis and the Mediterranean, as the Bosphorus opens a passage from the Euxine sea to the Propontis, it is equally well situated for the trade of the south and west; and when Egypt is under its dominion, its position is extremely advantageous in respect of the trade to India and the eastern coasts of Africa. In fine, geographers commonly tell us, that Constantinople is the most eligible situation for commerce that can any where be found; and when we cast our eyes upon the map, its geographical position seems to indicate the same. We may, however, be imposed on by unqualified descriptions, and general appearances. Geographers, as well as historians, are not always correct; and the omission of one single circumstance will sometimes alter very much the description, as the want, or the distortion, of one single object, changes materially the appearance of the picture or landscape. The situation of Constantinople, considered in a commercial point of view, has one great defect, and is, in that respect, much inferior to London, Lisbon, and several other ports. The length of the Hellespont is not less than sixty miles, and its ordinary breadth not more than three miles, but in many places much narrower. A strong current sets through the Bosphorus, the Propontis, and the Hellespont, from the Euxine sea, into the Grecian Archipelago, and a strong north wind often blows in that region during several months; which, together with a strong current setting in the same direction, through so narrow a streight, sometimes renders Constantinople, for a long time together, almost inaccessible, to vessels coming from the Mediterranean. Those ports, which are situated on the ocean, or on large rivers, which have an immediate communication with it, have a great advantage over those which are situated on the inland seas; such as the Mediterranean, Euxine, Baltic, &c. or on the rivers which fall into them, in having the tides to facilitate the approach and entrance of vessels, in case of a calm or contrary winds; whereas the latter, in similar cases, possess not that advantage; and if a strong wind sets in the same direction with a strong current, their aggregate force is so great, that it is almost impossible to make head against it. This is the great disadvantage of the commercial situation of Constantinople, which the strong north winds, that often blow in those parts, the rapid current always setting from the Euxine, and the long and narrow streight of the Hellespont, all combine, at certain times, to render almost unapproachable. It must, however, be granted, that Constantinople enjoys an excellent commercial situation, although not the best that can be found, as it has been often asserted. Its position was also the most eligible that Constantine could have chosen for his new capital, it being a most commanding post for repelling the attacks of the enemies of the empire, and almost unequalled in regard to the amenity and beauty of its situation.'

In the 10th letter, the interesting state of religion, after the death of Constantine, is considered in various and improving lights. Among others, the author's reflections on the nature and use of monastic institutions arrested our attention in this letter,

letter, because we find him at least a *restricted* apologist for seminaries which have often provoked our censure. There is some truth in his plea, but it is also open to many observations in reply; and it is obvious that he speaks of them rather as what they were *ostensibly*, or what they *might be*, than as what they too generally *were in reality*. Connected with the same subject, is the succeeding remark.

'The exorbitant elevation of the church was a natural consequence of the circumstances of the middle ages. In this enlightened age nothing can appear more shocking, or more abhorrent, from the universal feelings of human nature, than this spiritual usurpation; but if we dispassionately consider the circumstances of the times, and the state of the human mind, in the ages we are now contemplating, it will be found, not only consistent with the condition of mankind, throughout the Christian world at that time, but also, perhaps, better adapted to the then existing circumstances of Europe, than we are, upon a superficial view, inclined to imagine. For the general benefit of society, a very extensive power must be lodged in the hands of some of its members; and if we consider how few, in those dark ages, were endowed with abilities and learning requisite for conducting the great affairs of human society, we must allow, that the clergy were the persons best qualified for that important undertaking. This could not fail of giving an extraordinary influence and power to that order; and it is not the nature of man lightly to cast away that power which he sees naturally thrown into his hands. Whatever we may think at this day, when the circumstances of Europe have experienced so happy a change, if we contemplate, without passion or prejudice, the times of ignorance and barbarism, which, during the space of seven or eight centuries after the subversion of the Roman empire, overspread the face of Europe; perhaps it might be conducive to the benefits and tranquillity of society, that, in those times of tumult and anarchy, so great a portion of power fell into the hands of an order of men, to whom the sacred name and authority of religion ensured the veneration and obedience of a turbulent, but superstitious people; perhaps it might even have been necessary to the existence of Christianity, during so many ages of barbarism and unlettered ignorance. The counsels of Divine Providence are unsearchable, and far above our comprehension; but whatever disorders may, to our short-sighted capacities, seem to prevail in the divine government of the moral, as well as physical world, there is no doubt but that all events coincide with perfect harmony in the universal plan.'

We have sometimes been disposed to think, with this author, that the religious establishments of those days of darkness were necessary to 'the very existence of Christianity' at that period: our readers will recollect the sensible remarks of Dr. Jortin on this point; and perhaps we may add that the very superstitions and subtle disquisitions of churchmen on mysterious points of doctrine all conspired, if we may so express

it, to *inshrine the truth*, and to keep alive the embers which were destined in happier days to be again "a light to lighten the world."

We shall conclude our extracts with the writer's remarks on the Reformation:

'On contemplating the effects of the Reformation, in another point of view, we shall, however, perceive that this remarkable event, after the first commotions it occasioned had subsided, contributed in no small degree to the improvement of the human mind, not only by setting it free from the uncontrolable authority formerly exercised over it by spiritual judges, but also by the profound and learned investigations which arose from those religious disputes; as in every subject of disquisition the collision of opposite opinions strikes out new sparks of genius, and affords new lights to the inquisitive mind. Difficult investigations of complicated subjects, by exercising the mental faculties, ripen and invigorate the understanding. Things are viewed in new lights in which they would never have been seen, had they not been brought forward to distinct inspection by this kind of mental process, and appear with a train of dependent images, with which they would not otherwise have been seen in connection. Whenever any question appears so interesting as to become a subject of general investigation and inquiry, reading and conversation furnish new ideas, which reflection arranges and combines. Thus are new combinations formed in the mind, by which the sphere of human knowledge is enlarged, and its objects multiplied. The watchful eye of opposition, ever prone to censure the conduct and expose the faults of adversaries, also rendered the clergy of the different parties and sects of Christians more circumspect and regular in their morals than before those divisions took place. It was, indeed, absolutely necessary, that the clergy of every denomination of Christians should regulate their moral conduct in consistency with their sacred character, in order to avoid exposing themselves, and their party, to the contempt and censure of their opponents; a degree of circumspection, of which they would not, perhaps, have so sensibly felt the necessity, if there had been no adversary, whose censure they might apprehend. And it is a fact, which scarcely any one will call in question, that the clergy of the whole Christian church are both more learned, and more pious, than they would have been if those divisions had never taken place Difference in religious opinions, among men, is a circumstance which appears inevitable. Those persons who never think, may, indeed, silently and supinely acquiesce in any opinion proposed to their belief; and the bulk of mankind assent to doctrines, which they cannot with propriety be said to believe, because they have never once bestowed a thought on them, nor ever endeavoured to ascertain their truth; but, it appears absolutely impossible, that thinking persons should all think alike on any complicated subject, especially on subjects of abstract speculation, which cannot be brought under the inspection of the senses. The diversity of opinion on the subject of religion, could not however, be productive of any bad effects, if men, in exercising freedom of conscience themselves, would allow

allow to others the same privilege; but it is a melancholy circumstance, that the diabolical spirit of intolerance, and religious persecution, has not been peculiar to one single party or sect, but has insinuated itself into almost every system of religion. Those who most of all declaim against persecution, when they themselves are the objects of it, seldom make any scruple of exercising it against others; and whenever they see themselves possessed of power, soon find a pretext for imposing those restraints upon others which they so bitterly complain of themselves. But, however men may deceive themselves, all pretexts of advancing the glory of God or the interests of religion, by intolerant measures, are nugatory. God knows the weakness and incapacity of his finite creatures, the nature and extent of our intellectual powers, and the contracted limits of human comprehension, and looks with a compassionate eye on those errors which originate in a mistake of the judgment only and not in any perverseness of the will. Ought then presumptuous man to snatch the balance of justice from the hand of his Maker, and exercise cruelty and oppression in the name of the God of mercy and love; and ought not the arrogant usurpers of the divine prerogative to apprehend the most dreadful punishments? The present age, however, happily displays a prospect very different from the scenes exhibited in the days of fanaticism and religious bigotry; and the different sects and denominations of Christians if they disagree in the minutiæ of opinion, or the ceremonial part of religion, agree in a liberality of sentiment, and a spirit of religious toleration, unparalleled in any former period.'

What enlightened mind will not heartily concur in these just and liberal reflections! If our limits permitted, we could with pleasure proceed to state the author's views of America, and the probable effects which the discovery of that new world may ultimately produce: but it is time for us to close our remarks, together with the interesting volume which has excited them. Mans.

ART. IV. *Gleanings in England;* descriptive of the Countenance, Mind, and Character of the Country. With near Views of Peace and War. By Mr. Pratt. Vol. III. 8vo. pp 674. 12s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1803.

SCORNING to be 'a mere brick and mortar traveller,' Mr. Pratt does not glean up in his rambles any of the ordinary notices respecting the architecture, dimensions, &c. of public buildings. Mind and Character are the curiosities after which he seeks; and all that memory, reading, or reflection can furnish, is employed either as web or woof in his literary loom: for it must be observed that this gentleman is not a mere gleaner, but makes ample use of the materials which he collects. On former occasions, (see M. R. Vols. xiii. xxi. and xxxvi. N. S.) we have given our opinion of Mr. Pratt's merits

as

as a writer, and of the distinguishing character of these Gleanings. He continues, *qualis ab incepto*, to be entertaining, though often too diffuse; and to be successful in exciting our tender feelings, though forgetful that protracted pleasure terminates in something that is not pleasing. Could he learn to compress, and not "spin out the eternal theme, as he the fatal spinners would outspin," we apprehend that his works would be more acceptable to his readers; and we suggest this hint to his consideration with no malevolence of criticism, but with the purest view of contributing to his still farther utility; for Mr. Pratt is one of those writers who endeavour to speak to the heart, and to disseminate those virtues which constitute at once the glory and the felicity of social Man.

The first of the series of letters which form this 3d and last volume of Gleanings in England is dated from St. Ives, Huntingdonshire; near to which place the author's father resided, and 'kept a pack of hounds.' In this letter, a number of sonnets are included; the first of which, *On a Prospect of the Author's Birth-place*, we shall transcribe:

'Scenes of my boyish days—yet scenes of woe!—
From cradled childhood up to manhood bloom!
At my approach, why do my eyes o'erflow,
As if in grief to meet was *still* our doom?

'Yet why—tho' half involv'd in shades of night,
Dim thro' the river's mist thy spire appears,—
Impatient do I strain my aching sight,
Eager to own each object thro' my tears?

'And as thy well remember'd bridge I gain,
And draw more near, alas! my natal earth—
Tho' faster fall the drops - tho' sharp the pain,
I hail my birth-place, tho' I weep my birth.

'Ah, tender tears, which tender thoughts impart,
And leave no room for malice in my heart!'

Passing from Woodhurst to Warboys, Mr. Pratt introduces the reader to a mole-catcher, formerly his father's huntsman; thus sketching the man, and the hut which serves him for a daily retirement:

'Reared of turfs, on a few poles by way of pillars, and here and there a rude lath to fence the sides and to form the door-way, behold a sort of hermit-seeming hovel. Yet it is not the abode of an Anchorite: it is the daily retirement of a little social old man, aged eighty eight years*, whose name is John Grounds. He has fol-

'* A few days previously to the revision of this page for the press, the Author heard that the person here alluded to, is still living, which advances his age to ninety-three; and still in the enjoyment of health.'

lowed

lowed the occupation of a mole-catcher above thirty of those years, gaining from the parish the sum of two pence for the capture of each mole; and, so uninterrupted has been his health, that he has not been prevented in his employment more than thrice in the whole of that long space of time; though the walk from his cottage at Warboys to his turf hovel on the moor, is a full English league: and most of his time passed upon marshy land amidst humidity and vapours. Yet how few people who live in the air of a palace, and in the bosom of luxury, can vie with our poor Fenlander in all that makes life desirable—health, spirits, and content.

'But having shewn you his place of business by day, I will reconduct you to the hut where he has passed the nights of those thirty years in unbroken repose; and as we bend our way to the spot, I will present you with a true portrait of the man, and a brief sketch of his family and of his adventures.

'John Grounds, about sixty years preceding the date of this letter, had been a follower of my father's hounds, and distinguished himself as a lover of the sport, to partake which he would bound over the interposing fields, hedges, and ditches, with almost the speed, and more than the spirit of the hounds themselves, upon the first summons of the bugle horn. This early activity recommended him to the notice of the huntsman, who preferred him to the whipperinship, then vacant; and having, in this office, acquitted himself much to the satisfaction of the 'Squire, and of the pack, which, as he used to say, "all loved him to a dog," he was elevated, on the removal of his first patron, to another appointment, even to the entire command of the kennel: a situation which he filled for many years with great dignity and reputation. And, although it was not till late in his reign, that I was of sufficient age to form any personal opinion of those atchievements which, to the enthusiasts of the field of sports, are reckoned as important as any which are appreciated by heroes of another description, in the field of battle: (and perhaps with more reason, certainly with less criminality, considering the general causes of war,) I was old enough before he resigned the canine sceptre, to attest, that his government exhibited that happy mixture of fortitude and moderation, encouraging the true, correcting the false, paying honour to the sagacious, and rearing up the young and thoughtless to steady excellence, at the same time punishing the babbler, and teaching the ignorant And I remember I even then thought, that poor John Grounds might furnish no mean model, whereby to form those who are destined to rule a more disorganized and extensive empire; and how often has this idea since occurred to me, as I traced back the events of my boyish days. That simple monarch of my father's kennel, thought I, might come forth in the blameless majesty of dominion, and dictate wisdom to ministers and kings. The only poetical work which my father seemed truly to enjoy, was Somerville's fine poem of the "Chace," and often meeting it in my way, I perused and reperused it with avidity; not so much from any love of its glorious subject, as my father often called it, nor because I caught any thing of the spirit which the music of the hounds and of the horn is said to inspire, for I was extremely degenerate in that respect; but because I seemed

to be led over hills and dales, and scoured the plains, and followed the echoes through their woods, and brushed the dew, and passed the stream, in company and under conduct of the Muses. These appeared to shew me the hare, her velocity, and her energy, without worrying her In numbers more harmonious than the sounds, which were reverberated from the hills or thickets, these tuneful associates brought every thing of beauty and of sense to my mind's eye: and in reciting aloud different passages, that painted the loveliness of early morn, the fragrance of nature, the sagacity of the dog, and the pride of the horse, I was not seldom praised by my dear father, who thought me at length a convert to the joys and honours of the chace, when in effect, I was only animated by the charms of verse; and I was complimented for my feelings being congenial with the sportsman, when in truth, I was in raptures only with the poet.

'As time warned my father of the necessity of relinquishing the vehement exercise connected with these diversions, John Grounds passed with a fair character into the service of Lady St. John, of Bletsoe, as her ladyship's gamekeeper; in which office he remained, in "goodly favour and liking," as he expressed it, till the sorrowful day of her death. After this he married, and lived well pleased, till his first wife's decease: but he found the holy estate so happy, that he entered upon it again; and jocosely now advises his second dame not to give him another opportunity, for fear the third time should not be so favourable.

'His mole catching is united with the occupation of bird-frighter, in those parts of the year when the feathered plunderers assault the corn and fruits or when, as their poetical advocate observed "the birds of Heaven assert their right to and vindicate their grain.' But, "poor fools," would Grounds often say; "I sometimes think they have as good a right to a plumb, or a cherry, or a wheat ear, as any Christian person; and so I seldom pop at them with any thing but powder; and that more for the pleasure of hearing the noise of a gun than to do any execution; except, now and then, indeed, I let fly at a rascally old kite, who would pounce upon cherry and bird too, and carry off one of my chicks into the bargain, if it lay in his way.

"And when I *do* try my hand at a thief, I am not often wide of my mark." cried the old man, in a late interview; "I can still give him a leaden luncheon, when I have a mind to it Now and then too, a carrion crow, with a murrain to him, and a long-necked heron, with a fish in his mouth, goes to pot: but some how, I don't relish fixing my trap for these poor soft creatures! (taking one from the mole bag slung over his shoulders) they look so comfortable, and feel so sleek and silky; and when they lie snugly under the earth, little think, poor souls! what a bait I have laid for them, seeing I cover the trumble-stick with fresh sod so slyly, there seems to be no trap at all. Though they turn up the ground, to be sure, and rootle, like so many little hogs; and for that matter, do a power of mischief: and as for blindness, 'none are so blind, as they who won't see, your honour.' These fellows know a trap as well as I do, and can see my tricks as plain as I can see their's: and sometimes they

they lead me a fine dance from hillock to hedge, with a murrain to them! pass through my traps, and after turning up an acre of ground, sometimes in a single night give me the slip at last"

'But it is time to look at the portrait of the man And lo! seated on a brown bench, cut in the wall within the chimney place, in a corner of yon rude cottage, he presents himself to your view. Behold his still ruddy cheeks, his milk white locks, partly curled, and partly strait—see how correctly they are separated in the middle, almost to the equal division of a hair—a short pipe in his mouth—his dame's hand folded in his own—a jug of smiling beer warming in the wood ashes—a cheerful blaze shining upon two happy old countenances, in which, though you behold the indent of many furrows, they have been made by age, no sorrow—the good sound age of health, without the usual infirmities of long-life—exhibiting precisely the unperceived decay so devoutly to be wished. On the matron's knee, sits a purring cat: at the veteran's foot, on the warm hearth, sleeps an aged hound, of my father's breed in the direct line of unpolluted descent: or "a true chip of the old block," as John phrased it; and who, by its frequent and quick-repeated whaffle, or demi-bark, seems to be dreaming of the chace—an antique gun is pendent over the chimney—a spinning wheel occupies the vacant corner by the second brown bench: and a magpie, with closed eyes, and his bill nestled under his wing, is at profound rest in his wicker cage. To close the picture, the mole-bag, half filled with the captives of the day, thrown into a chair, on which, observe, a kitten has clambered, and is in the act of playing with one of the soft victims, which it has contrived to purloin from the bag, for its pass-time: while the frugal, but sprightly light, from the well stirred faggot, displays on the mud, but clean walls, many a time-embrowned ditty, as well moral as professional; such as "God rest you, merry Gentlemen,"—"The Morning is up and the Cry of the Hounds"—"The Sporstman's Delight"—"Chevy Chace,"—and "The Jolly Huntsman."

'Such, exactly, were persons and place, as, in one of my visits of unfading remembrance of good old folks, whom I had known in early days, I walked to Warboys, and surveyed its famous wood and fen.'

Warboys introduces a long history and dissertation on *old* Witches: but, as the nation at large is now of opinion with the Judge before whom "a wrinkled hag" was brought for trial, that "there are no witches but *young* ones," we shall glean nothing from this obsolete topic.

We enter into Mr. Pratt's feelings on the subject of Literature. He laments that it is not patronized by princes and mighty men; he contends, in opposition to the authority of Dr. Adam Smith, that men of genius rank in the productive class; and he applauds the commendable exertions of the Literary Fund to succour them in distress, asserting, with a warmth of expression which comes from the heart, the full Claims of Literature. Authors, he is of opinion, have indiscreetly contributed to their own degradation in the general esteem, by continually

tinually exhibiting the fiction of their garret with its disgusting appendages; and he thinks that the representation of them on the stage has farther assisted in destroying the public respect for them. From playfulness of mind, authors often hold themselves up as subjects of public ridicule: but it has sometimes happened that, while they afforded amusement to others, they themselves have been objects of the greatest compassion. An anecdote is told of Carlini, the drollest buffoon who ever appeared on the Italian stage at Paris, which strongly illustrates this remark:

'A French physician having been consulted by a person subject to the most gloomy fits of melancholy, advised his patient to mix in scenes of gaiety and dissipation; and particularly to frequent the Italian theatre, and if Carlini does not dispel your gloomy complaint, says he, your case must be desperate, indeed. Alas! Sir, said the patient, I myself am Carlini, and while I divert all Paris with mirth, and make them almost *die with* laughter, I myself am dying with melancholy and chagrin.'

A letter is appropriated to *Dogs*, which are termed by Mr. Pratt 'inestimable appendages of human society;' and an affecting account is given of the noble and generous instincts displayed by these most amiable and faithful animals: but, partial as we are to Dogs, and well as we know their extraordinary capabilities, we can scarcely credit all the parts of this narrative.

Cruelty to animals is a subject which is extended to some length; and in the discussion of which Mr. Pratt reprobates the sentiment expressed by a celebrated member of the House of Commons, 'that the English soldier learns courage from the English bull and bull-dog.' 'I do not,' continues he, 'believe a naturally brave man ever yet derived one particle of reflected courage from any of the inhuman amusements whatsoever. They are heartless diversions, during which, there is not room enough left in the bosom for one noble or generous thought. And I again enter a caveat against your receiving such a satire upon our patriotism and humanity.'—Tenderness to the brute creation is recommended as an early part of education: 'Believe me, there is not a virtue, within the wide extent of your vast empire over youth, more necessary to be inculcated, than that of establishing in them a principle of humanity for the DUMB CREATION. Give them genuine compassion founded upon justice, not sickly sensibility founded on affectation, and you give them the richest "jewel of their souls;" because it is the foundation of all that is good and great in human, and inevitably connects with all that will render them most acceptable to the divine nature.'

Though much is gleaned respecting London, we must be satisfied with the first and general glance:

'London

'London invites—the imperial seat of what is most good and most bad, most fair and most foul, perhaps, in the universe, because like the language which is spoken in it, it is a compound of every other town and country; and what the sublimely sorrowing Dr. Young has said in his famous apostrophe on that greatest of all compounds, *man*, himself, may with the change only of a single word, be applied to the metropolis of Britain! How rich! how poor! how abject! how august! how complicate! how wonderful is London!'

A sentimental traveller cannot ramble through the streets of the metropolis without compassionating the case of the chimney-sweeper's *climbing-boys*. From one of these miserable beings, Mr. Pratt received the following account:

'A *sweep* being called by a tradesman at the door of a house, the man went in, and was desired to examine the state of the chimneys—while he did which, he placed the boy whom he had been carrying, in a jutting of the shop passage, and ordered the other two to wait without. I now entered into discourse with these, and the elder apprentice who appeared to me in extreme ill health, told me in a fearful whisper, on my asking concerning his mode of living and labour, that he should be sixteen in July, and then if he lived would rather be a shoe black or a galley slave than a chimney sweeper, especially to the brute who is gone into that house, for he not only almost starves but beats me and my brothers to death, though I have gone all weathers through my morning work for many years. I have nothing to sleep on but some of these sacks in a soot cellar, and what's worse, my master won't allow us to wash and tight ourselves up not once a month: so that I am quite sore with the clogged stuff that has almost eat into my flesh—only look, Sir, at these sore places and these great lumps. Scarcely had he finished this account of himself, during which the second boy had fallen asleep beside the door, and the youngest was exciting kind words and good deeds of the servant maid of the house, who was bathing his wounded foot, than the hoarse sound of the master's voice assailed the ears of the speaker from a chamber window, ordering him and the climbing boys to come up stairs. Not doing this, however, as expeditiously as the impatient tyrant required, he ran down to the offending parties and struck the apprentice on the head, exclaiming he could not clamber, tossed him again over his shoulder, bitterly swearing that he should go up if it was only for his yelping—yes, that you shall you little blackguard, if I was sure you would be stuck fast in the middle of the chimney—And do you go on to Covent Garden, you sleepy headed hound you, I find you have been napping as usual, and see that the chimney at No. 7. is swept before I come, or I'll sleep you I warrant. The servant maid implored a respite for the lame child, and the master of the shop edged in a side way word favourably though gapingly, but the tyrant was inexorable.'

This moralist, in noticing *Middle Row*, Holborn, where odd books are often sought, suggests a hint to the borrowers of books,

books, which, as it is much wanted, we shall transcribe for the benefit of all ladies and gentlemen who have libraries:

'Pausing a little at the different stalls, I noted several persons enquiring for odd volumes, to compleat broken sets, which had been lost by the commerce of lending or borrowing; for you must know, that detention of books, is amongst the negligences, or petty larcenies in friendship, which is generally as little attended to by the lender as the borrower—the proprietor as the purloiner; and it is as common to ask the loan of a book for a week and keep it a year, on pretence of not having had time to read. or even for the lender to lend it again, and so lose it at last; or, which is quite as convenient, take a memorandum to forget that it was ever lent at all.'

In the *Dog and Bird-shop*, the Gleaner finds matter for reflection. Fleet Market presents to his view a London epicure replete with *Cheapside* wit, which is delineated *to the life;* and a visit to the Fleet prison offers a melancholy contrast to this picture of bloated gluttony. The pathetic scene is thus described:

'I now passed into the interior of the prison, and saw a powerful illustration of the difference already remarked upon. of captive man and other animals—I followed the exquisite Sterne's touching idea of "selecting a single captive," and I made the selection from a disastrous groupe which were sitting in a rueful state, almost at the entrance of the area A more squalid specimen of poverty, disease, and dirt, could not well have been chosen out of all the receptacles of want and woe in this world of sorrow. The face was alike worn by sickness and penury—pale, lean, and that yellow sort of hue which is often the effect of hard fare and exposure to the elements. The eyes sank almost to the bottom of their sockets, and her lips, for it was a female, had that livid cast, and were in that peeling state which denotes a feverish habit of body; a patched red cloak was thrown over her rather to cover her infant, which had been born in prison, than to be of use to herself. The bosom of the mother was partly bare, and a sickly looking child was attempting to draw nourishment, from a source that appeared to have nothing to bestow. Never did I behold two of the human beings, generally amongst the most interesting of any in the world—a babe and a parent giving it suck, in so revolting a condition.

'The features of the mother, so far from being naturally disgusting, were sweet; but defiled by the neglect which want of food and health in the poorer classes, who have no idea of creating interest by external appearance, occasions. Her affections were, as I had soon too good reason to believe, unpolluted, even by these sore pressures upon almost the best emotions of the heart. While one hand was employed to console herself with a pinch of snuff, the other was engaged in drawing the ragged hood of the cloak more closely round the head of the forlorn little wretch; which seemed to be divided between the act of feeding and sleeping on an impoverished breast.

'Upon

'Upon questioning the mourner, respecting the circumstances which produced her confinement—she told me, and ah! I am sure, Baron, she told me true—for such a look, and such a voice were never allowed by the Lord of nature to assist a lye—she told me, "that she was a prisoner not for herself, but for having ministered to her husband's effects. She thought these would cover all, and put something besides into her pocket; but that she found she was mistaken, and was when debts were paid near sixty pounds worse than before, from some claims of old standing which she thought settled years agone—"but that the creditors had found she did for the best, and therefore she was now in jail only for the fees, which were to be paid, by a good soul, that very morning."

"Then wherefore are you so melancholy, and why do you sit here on the ground and in the cold?"—"Only Sir, because it is too close in the room, of which I have a third part, and I thought a little fresh air might do poor Billy good—though for my part, I am almost parched to death."

'So you are not in immediate necessity? No Sir, thank you—I *have* been—but good creatures have befriended me within and without the walls—there are many charitable persons here I assure you—but all the charity in the world will not bring about this poor stinted boy—who, though he is so starvely and dwarfish, is near fifteen months old, and ought to have been weaned long ago; but he has not strength to eat, and was always a weakly baby.'

'While the poor woman uttered the last sentence, she drew her cloak gently aside, and bending over her child dropt the presaging tears of a mother on its pale and emaciated cheeks.—On lifting up her head, I discovered her own cheeks copiously wetted with those drops, which, when a suckling infant is their object, always come from a sorrowing heart, and may be trusted. The most hardened or the most deceived spectator, must have given her credit for every drop. And if he had been proof against these evidences, how would he have resisted what followed?

"Poor baby! you were born here, and you may as well die here too; for you must go, you must leave me, and very, very soon too; and what signifies my being out of prison or in it; only that I can, perhaps, put you in the same ground, or near it, where your father lies, whom you are as like as two peas are to one another; and though he *did* get into debt more than I knew of, and potted away his money and brought himself here, and me after him, I took him for love; at first, he was a kind husband, and I loved him to the last. He breathed that last, poor fellow, upon this very arm, as I held him up on his pillow, just as you will do. And to be sure it will be some comfort to have you both near one another, and I won't be far off, for I will not give up the old place, and there I shall be almost within sight of your graves, though I don't think I shall be long after you, and I am sure I don't wish it."

'The mother was overwhelmed by her sensations, and most of the speech was broken into those fragments of expression which genuine agony excites, when proceeding from genuine affection, and particularly of a mother bewailing a child in danger: At the end of her heart's

effusion, she tenderly kissed the feeble creature she had bewailed, folded it up more warmly, and seeing it begin to close the eyes, rocked it on her lap, and hushed it to slumber.'

This detail is followed by some observations on the impolicy of imprisonment for debt, with a selection from which we shall finish our extracts:

'There is here no need of declamatory vehemence; we live in an age of commerce and computation; let us therefore coolly inquire what is the sum of evil which the imprisonment of debtors brings upon our country.

'It seems to be the opinion of the late computists, that the inhabitants of England do not exceed six millions, of which twenty thousand is the three hundredth part. What shall we say of the humanity or the wisdom of a nation that voluntarily sacrifices one in every three hundred to lingering destruction!

'The misfortunes of an individual do not extend their influence to many; yet if we consider the effects of consanguinity and friendship, and the general reciprocation of wants and benefits, which make one man dear or necessary to another, it may reasonably be supposed, that every man languishing in prison gives trouble of some kind to two others who love or need him. By this multiplication of misery we see distress extended to the hundredth part of the whole society.

'If we estimate at a shilling a day what is lost by the inaction and consumed in the support of each man thus chained down to involuntary idleness, the public loss will rise in one year to three hundred thousand pounds; in ten years to more than a sixth part of our circulating coin.

'I am afraid that those who are best acquainted with the state of our prisons will confess that my conjecture is too near the truth, when I suppose that the corrosion of resentment, the heaviness of sorrow, the corruption of confined air, the want of exercise, and sometimes of food, the contagion of diseases, from which there is no retreat, and the severity of tyrants, against whom there can be no resistance, and all the complicated horrors of a prison, put an end every year to the life of one in four of those that are shut up from the common comforts of human life.

'Thus perish yearly five thousand men, overborne with sorrow, consumed by famine, or putrified by filth; many of them in the most vigorous and useful part of life; for the thoughtless and imprudent are commonly young, and the active and busy are seldom old.'

The statement of the population of England, included in this passage, is below the mark: but the force of the argument is not thus much diminished.

On the views of Peace and War, Mr. Pratt's reflections are truly spirited and patriotic: but, as they do not differ from those of other writers, who have liberally volunteered their services in the present momentous crisis, we may excuse ourselves from subjecting them to particular notice

With

With much apparent reluctance, the gleaner takes leave of the reader; for to a *Retrospect* he adds a *Summary*, and to the *Summary* he affixes something by way of *Appendix*.—In the preface, he produces evidence of a fact formerly maintained, that, in some parts of Wales, lovers carry on innocent courtship in bed; but, however true this account may be, we do not recommend the adoption of the practice in England. What Mr. Pratt means (p. 83,) by Pliny's history being a pleasing romance, we do not understand; and there are several expressions, such as '*gleanworthy*;' '*some two years ago*,'* &c. which we as little approve as the following line in one of the Sonnets,

'To mark the place where god-like friend has been.'

Mr. Pratt's intentions, however, are so good and benevolent, that it is impossible not to pardon trifling errors in style; and though fastidious readers may at times disapprove his prolix sentimentality, it must be their own fault if their hearts be not warmed in the cause of virtue.

We are glad to find that Mr. Pratt has adopted a hint thrown out in one of our former articles, and is preparing for publication a work in two octavo volumes, forming 'an Inquiry into National Inventions, Improvements, *moral and social state of the Artizans in manufacturing towns, public prisons*,' &c. &c. We hope that he will be diligent in collecting *facts* sufficient to warrant indisputable deductions, and that from them he will reason logically, temperately, and successfully.

Moy.

ART. V. *Indian Antiquities:* or, Dissertations, relative to the Antient Geographical Divisions, the pure System of Primæval Theology, the Grand Code of Civil Laws, the Original Form of Government, the widely extended Commerce, and the various and profound Literature of Hindostan: compared throughout with the Religion, Laws, Government, and Literature of Persia, Egypt, and Greece. The Whole intended as introductory to and illustrative of the History of Hindostan upon a comprehensive Scale. Vol. VII. and final. 8vo. pp. 500. 9s. Boards. White.

WE have ever been most willing to bestow on this author the praise which is due to a spirit of enterprize, and to allow him the distinction which belongs to the occupant of a novel field. As far as it was permitted to us, we laid aside the severity of criticism; and when we felt ourselves obliged

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* This expression is employed when speaking of M. de la Condamine's visit to London, and is a great error in chronology as well as inelegance of construction. See the Gentleman's Magazine for June 1763, (Vol. 33.) p. 304.

to remark on his unwarrantable flights and his strained hypotheses, or to point out his defects and his mistakes, we endeavoured to perform this duty with gentleness, and were careful not to disregard any grounds for praise which we were able to discern; being unwilling to damp laudable ardour, or to deprive the public of the benefit of labours which, however they may be appreciated, will be admitted by all to have been directed to useful and important objects *. If Mr. Maurice, since our acquaintance commenced, has improved in his style, and displays greater judgment, he still continues more the rhetorical than the philosophical narrator; he is industrious in accumulating, but takes not much pains in arranging his materials; his collection is an exhibition of specimens of the ore mixed with its various alloys, and adhering to its matrix,—not of the purified metal. He may be compared to a traveller who has marked out the boundaries of a country, and traced some of its prominent features, but who leaves it to more accurate adventurers to draw out a distinct and correct map; he has sketched a design, rather than executed a chef d'œuvre. If, however, we regret what has not been accomplished, we applaud much of what has been done; and we express our unfeigned thanks to him for the large stores of knowlege which he has amassed relative to a subject of great interest to the republic of letters, and of high and peculiar importance to this country.

This volume is introduced by a dissertation on the bullion and coined money of the antient world; the facts to elucidate which are very judiciously selected. Mr. M. gives a short account of the several mines which in former days furnished the precious metals, as those of antient Arabia, which he supposes to have been the Havilah of the Pentateuch; those of Sofala, the Ophir of the scriptures, as he contends after Bruce; those of the Pyrenean mountains of Spain; those of the Thebais in Egypt; those of Caramania in Persia; those of silver at Sunium in Attica; and those of Thrace, which are said to have yielded three millions of our money annually to Philip and Alexander. To illustrate this subject, he exhibits to his reader the wealth which centered at Persepolis when Alexander held his court there; and he then traces it to the capitals of his Generals who divided his conquests among them. He discovers an immense portion of it displayed in the procession at Alexandria, made to celebrate the coronation of Ptolemy Philadelphus, of which Athenæus gives an account; another division of it fell to the share of Seleucus, and was

* See M. R. Vols. xii. pp. 1. 129. 246. xiv. p 311. xix. p. 401. and xxiv. p. 37. N. S.

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exhibited at Daphne near Susa by Antiochus Epiphanes, the particulars of which are related by Polybius; the remaining share of it went to the kings of Macedon, and we meet with the statement of its contents in Plutarch's relation of the triumph of Paulus Æmilius. Mr. M. next enters into a detail of the riches of Rome in the days of the republic, and under the first emperors. It appears that, in the time of Antony, the revenue drawn annually from Asia exceeded three millions of our money, and that the taxes paid by Alexandria alone in the reign of Augustus amounted to more than a million and a half.

In the subsequent extract, our modern bankers will see what venerable persons their predecessors were in antient times; yet, notwithstanding the sanctity of their characters, they do not seem to have been so well entitled to confidence as their less pretending successors:

'The principal hoards of treasure, both in bullion and coined money, among the Greeks, we know to have been in their temples, which were crowded with presents of immense value, brought by the superstitious from every part of Greece. These temples were considered as national banks, and the priests officiated as bankers, not always indeed the most honest, as was once proved at Athens, where the state-treasurers, having expended or embezzled the public money, had the audacity to set fire to that part of the temple of Minerva where the treasure was contained, by which sacrilegious act that magnificent fane was near being wholly consumed. Their purpose, however, was fully answered, since the registers of the temple were reported to have perished with the treasures, and all responsibility precluded.

'The temple, just mentioned, the superb fane of Jupiter Olympius, at Elis, and that of Apollo, at Delphi, were the principal of those sacred depositaries. The priests, at all times, concealed the total sum of the treasures lodged in them with too much caution for us to know the amount, yet, when the Phocenses, urged to despair by the exactions of the Thebans, seized on the treasures of Delphi, they amounted to ten thousand talents, above two millions two hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling; and probably that but a small portion of what holy perfidy had previously secured. Those deposited at the great temple of Ephesus, considered through all ages as inviolable, probably far exceeded those of the three last-mentioned.'

We shall now copy the details of some facts, which will enable the reader to form an idea of the opulence and extravagance prevailing in the latter days of Rome:

'Its inhabitants, in their magnificent entertainments and sumptuous mode of living, far surpassed the princes of Asia itself; for, we soon after find them sleeping on beds of gold and ivory, quaffing the rich wines of Chios and Falernus out of gold and silver goblets, and

riding in carriages shining all over with those bright and precious metals. To supply this unlimited extravagance, the governors of these provinces, whence they were principally obtained, as we learn from Cicero against Verres, committed the most unheard-of extortions; while the most shameless corruption pervaded every department of the state, and the most infamous crimes polluted the whole body of the citizens. Indeed, how was it possible for the stream to be pure when the fountain itself was so deeply contaminated? When we find a Vitellius consuming between seven and eight millions a year on entertainments, and a Caligula expending above eighty thousand pounds sterling on a supper, we cannot wonder at the tragedian Clodius Æsopus lavishing on one luxurious dish 600 *sestertia*, £.4,843, 10*s.** or the young spendthrift, his son, treating each of his guests, after dinner, with a superb cordial, in which a costly pearl had been dissolved †. The wealth of Crassus was proverbially great, and amounted to £.1,614,583, 6*s.* 8*d.*; but far greater was that of Pallas, the freed man of Claudius, for it was valued at £.2,421,875; but both were exceeded by that of Lentulus, the augur, who was worth *quater millies*, or £.3,229,166, 13*s.* 4*d.* Even poets and philosophers, in those golden days, amassed vast fortunes; for Seneca, in four years, acquired *ter millies*, £.2,421,875; and, according to Servius, in the life of Virgil, that poet was worth *centies* H.S. or £.80,729, 3*s.* 4*d.* This sum, however, though great for a poet, was not thought sufficient to support existence by a pampered Roman senator, since the famous Apicius, after spending in culinary delicacies *millies* H.S. or £.807,291, 13*s.* 4*d.* and squandering, besides, the amount of immense grants and pensions, on casting up his accounts, finding he had only this exact sum remaining, poisoned himself, that he might not perish by the severer pangs of famine.

'In their dress and furniture they were equally expensive; for Lollia Paulina, the great beauty of Rome in the time of Caligula, and on that account compulsively advanced to his bed, when full-drest, constantly wore jewels of the value of £.322,916, 13*s.* 4*d.* and the price for rich Babylonian *triclinaria*, coverlids, or carpets for their dining-beds, was £.6,458, 6*s.* 8*d.* Nor could their houses themselves be of mean fabric or decoration; since that of Crassus was valued at *sexagies*, H.S. or £.48,437, 10*s.* while that of Clodius cost *centies et quadragies octies*, or £.119,479, 5*s.* 4*d.* ‡ Those houses were externally cased with marble, and had marble pillars to support the lofty ceilings; they were internally decorated with rich tapestry; with costly hangings of Tyrian purple; with urns and statues exquisitely sculptured and polished, and paintings of the most beautiful design and brilliant colours; fountains of variegated marble played in their cœnacula, or great banqueting-rooms, cooling the air and refreshing the guests, who dined off gold plate, served up on tables overlaid with silver, and reclined on sofas sustained by legs of ivory, silver, and sometimes even gold. They were also uncommonly splendid in the article of lamps, which were often fabricated of the most precious

'* Pliny, lib. x. cap. 60.' '† Ibid. lib. xxxv. cap. 12.'
'‡ Ibid. lib. xxxvi. cap. 15.'

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materials, and in which they burned the most costly and fragrant oils.'

Treating of the stamp which the first money bore, and premising that the primitive race of men were shepherds, whose wealth consisted principally in their cattle, Mr. Maurice observes:

'When, for greater convenience, metals were substituted for the commodity itself, it was natural for the representative sign to bear impressed the object which it represented; and thus accordingly the earliest coins were stamped with the figure of an ox or SHEEP. For proof that they actually did thus impress them, we can again appeal to the high authority of Scripture; for there we are informed that Jacob bought a parcel *of a field for an hundred pieces of money*, Gen. ch.xxxiii.v.19. The original Hebrew term, translated *pieces of money*, is KESITOTH, which signifies LAMBS, with the figure of which the metal was doubtless stamped. We have a second instance of this practice in the ancient Greek coin, denominated Βοῦς, the *ox*; and we meet with a third in the old brass coins of Rome, (whence I before observed the public treasury was called *ærarium*,) stamped, before that city began to use gold and silver money, with the figure of a *sheep*, whence the Latin name *pecunia*. *Signatum est notis pecudum*; *unde et pecunia appellata*. (Plin.) In process of time, when empires were formed, and men crowded into cities, coins came to be impressed with different devices, allusive either to the history of its founder, some remarkable event in the history of the nation, their accidental situation, or the predominant devotion of the country. Thus the shekel of the Jews had Aaron's rod budding, with a smoaking censer. The Tyrians had their Petræ Ambrosiæ, and serpentine emblems, of which some curious examples may be seen in the fifth engraving of this volume. The Athenian coins bore impressed an owl, and Pallas. The maritime race, who inhabited the Peloponnesus, had a testudo, or shell, as their symbol; the Persians, practised in the use of the bow, an archer, which is the constant device on the Darics; the Thessalians, a horse; the Byzantines, situated on the Thracian Bosphorus, a dolphin twisted about a trident.'

The author supposes the Lydians to have been the first who stamped the effigies of their princes on their coins, whence those issued by Crœsus were called Crœsei. The Crœsei, he conjectures (with great probability), were recoined by Darius, and became the Darics so famous in antient times; those issued by Philip of Macedon, the produce of the mines of Thrace, were called Philippi, and were of the value of a pound sterling. A curious trait of Alexander is here noted:

'Alexander, content with the full tide of glory which he was convinced would attend his name and actions in future ages, seems to have declined the celebrity which arises from multiplying the regal effigies upon coins; and, soon after his exaltation to the throne of Macedon, forbad the impression of his own portrait to be used at the mint.

This was so strictly observed, that we have only one small silver coin, a hemidrachm, struck during his whole reign, (which indeed was but short,) bearing his effigies, and that is an unique in Dr. Hunter's collection. It exhibits a very juvenile aspect; and the reverse is a man on horseback, the usual ornament of Macedonian coins. His gold coins exhibit, on one side, a head of Minerva; and, on the other, a Victory, standing: his silver, a head of young Hercules, and the reverse, Jupiter sitting:—a collection of symbols that doubtless flattered the pride of the victorious son of Jove, far more than the diffusion of the impression of the head of a mere man. What pride or caprice, however, prevented being done by himself, was abundantly accomplished by his successors at Macedon and his admirers elsewhere; so that posterity are in no want of genuine similitudes of that wonderful man.'

The account which the author gives of antient Hindoo literature, in the next dissertation, is not in itself unpalatable fare, but will (we suspect) be deemed ordinary by those who have feasted on the learned researches of Bailly, the able investigations of Playfair, and the well arranged and finely narrated details of Robertson.

By those who have not perused the Institutes of Menu, (for a translation of which the public is indebted to the late Sir William Jones,) and the Gentoo Code of Mr. Halhed, the Dissertation on the antient government and jurisprudence of India, in which the material parts of both these curious communications are judiciously and neatly combined, will be deemed an acceptable present.

'The government of India (says the author) certainly was in the strictest sense *monarchical*, but with very just and severe checks to guard against the possible abuse of the powers intrusted to the ruling sovereign. The Indian monarchy, as originally established, at the same time exhibits to us in a more marked manner than most other countries of Asia glaring vestiges of the original *patriarchal* mode of government, founded on the model of the *paternal*, in which the chief of each family exercised the sovereign jurisdiction over the individuals of it, even to the infliction of death, when merited; continuing to flourish unviolated for a long succession of ages. With the regal, in him were combined the sacerdotal dignity, and a kind of prophetic sanctity of character, supposed to have descended to him from that venerable personage who was the grand fountain of all post-diluvian honours; the KING, PRIEST, and PROPHET, of the regenerated world! A band of holy Brahmins, who, like the Magi of Persia, were the hereditary counsellors of the Indian crown, constantly attended in the palace, and around the sacred person of the prince, to give him their advice in the most important concerns of his empire, to inculcate upon him the duty of a just and wise sovereign, at stated periods to chaunt the solemn hymns of devotion, to assist at the frequently returning rites of sacrifice, and explain the omens of the blazing altar.'

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The sacerdotal pre-eminence established by the Hindoo code would of itself prove its high antiquity; for the more remotely we penetrate into its recesses, the more powerful do we find the supposed ministers of the gods. The prerogatives of the priests under the Indian policy are great indeed, as is thus manifest:

'An assembly of the Brahmins, sitting in judgment on a vicious or tyrannical king, may condemn him to death, and the sentence is recorded to have been executed; but no crime affects the life of the Brahmin, he may suffer temporary degradation from his cast, but his blood must never stream on the sword of justice; he is a portion of the deity, he is inviolable, he is invulnerable, he is immortal!'

As these matters have been already communicated to the world, we must refer such as are curious with regard to them to the original works themselves; or to the able and very satisfactory summary of them which forms the concluding article of Mr. Maurice's Indian Antiquities.

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ART. VI. *The Modern History of Hindostan:* comprehending that of the Greek Empire of Bactria, and other great Asiatic Kingdoms, bordering on its Western Frontier. Commencing at the Period of the Death of Alexander, and intended to be brought down to the Close of the Eighteenth Century. Vol. I. Parts I. and II. 4to. pp. 508. 2l. 2s. sewed. White.

To elucidate any portion of history has always been deemed a service which intitles the meritorious labourer to distinction. If this be true generally, it must be so *à fortiori* when applied to those favoured and interesting regions, which are regarded as the cradle of the human race, of science, and of civilization: but, moreover, the value of the undertaking is enhanced in the eyes of every subject of these united kingdoms, when it is considered that the regions in question are dependencies on the British empire, the pillars of its political pre-eminence, and the grand sources of its power and wealth.

On such grounds, then, none can be more disposed than we are to applaud the object of Mr. Maurice's labours, or to commend his zeal and perseverance. To those who have perused our accounts of his former works, we have no information to give in regard to his claims as an author. If the valuable qualities which we have been forward to notice, whenever we sat in judgment on his past performances, are not wanting in the present, truth compels us to state that the faults and defects, which we have so often pointed out on prior occasions, are scarcely in any degree diminished in the volumes before us; and that the same marks of haste, immaturity of plan, and indiscriminate

nate aggregation of materials, which reduced the value of the preceding publications, equally affect that which we are now examining *. The reader is still wearied by diffuse details, where the matter has little interest, or little relevancy; while a perverse conciseness is introduced when events of great general concernment are related. The same causes occasion the narrative in many places to be confused; and the most attentive reader must repeatedly peruse it before he can discover the relations of its parts, or make it in any degree his own.

The subject in itself considered, as well as the interest which is so eminently connected with it in the country in which Mr. M. writes, was calculated to excite every energy, in order to render worthy of it the volumes which were to be dedicated to its illustration. Two literary heroes had occupied part of the ground, and the adventurer on the same scene should have been aware that comparisons would be made, or contrasts drawn; he ought therefore well to have estimated his strength; and to have ascertained whether he was equal to follow such great steps, in order to determine either on abandoning the attempt, or on gaining a name that would not have been eclipsed by the lustre of fellow labourers. Mr. Maurice possesses one of the principal and most indispensable requisites in order to excel; namely, a fertile and even exuberant genius: but he is an exception to the critic's observation, *Multum inde decoquent anni, multum ratio limavit, aliquid velut usu ipso deteretur.* He does not practise the delay which antient authority has prescribed. He is a candidate for distinction, not a little querulous because he is not invested with its prerogatives, and does not share in its rewards; forgetting that he has not duly paid the price without which it can never be attained. *Nihil enim rerum ipsa natura voluit magnum effici cito, preposuitque pulcherrimo cuique operi difficultatem.* The field of Indian history, for the purposes of fame and immortality, remains still unoccupied; because Mr. Maurice, with talents which might have secured to him a long possession, shrunk from the conditions on which alone a title could be made good. Such a work, therefore, from a pen well versed in the languages of the East, stationed on the scene, and guided by talents properly chastened, will still be a desideratum even when Mr. M. shall have completed his undertaking: but, in the mean time, the public will be grateful for the information which he has placed within their reach, and will feel anxious that he should bring his design to a close. Mr. Maurice takes frequent occasion to state

* For Mr. M.'s *antient* History of Hindostan, see Rev. Vols. xxii. and xxxii, N. S.

his high sense of the dignity of his province, and to profess his solemn resolution not to prostitute the authority with which it invests him. Precedents for professions of this sort are to be found in the first writers, when they treat of contemporaneous or recent transactions of their own country: but they seem superfluous when the narrative refers to remote events, and widely distant regions. Recollection, however, suggested to us that these gratuitous professions were less improper in Mr. M. than, at first view, they might appear: but this would be hardly worth the mention, did it not happen that the words scarcely escape his pen before he violates them. Ceylon, inauspiciously for his fame, but conveniently he might think for his fortune, comes in his way; and he gives a fulsome and extravagant description, in which we are confident a certain personage was more regarded than historic truth, to which he had just sworn most dutiful fealty; namely, the personage termed in the dedication of the work the glorious pacificator of a conflicting world: whose diplomatic feat it was, in a recent treaty, to retain this all but solitary token of the conquests which had cost his country so much.

Mr. Maurice, having brought his antient history of India down to the death of Alexander, has chosen to denominate that part which intervenes between this event and the close of the century recently terminated, its *modern* history; assigning unquestionably to the term *modern*, an extent which usage by no means sanctions. The division of his work, here commenced, is intended to comprize the whole of this vast and important period.

Among other miscellaneous matters introductory to the narrative, we meet with an account of the peculiar manners and customs which distinguish the inhabitants of Hindostan; speaking of whom, Mr. M. says:

'They were in past times, as at present, divided into various tribes, or casts, never intermingled in marriage, at entertainments, or in any intimate manner associated. Their great ingenuity in all the mechanical arts, their genius for commerce, which they carried on to a considerable extent with Egypt and Arabia, the liberal hospitality and love of truth, the rigid temperance and frugality by which they were distinguished; but above all the profound learning and lofty precepts of morality inculcated by the ancient Brachmans, are celebrated with lavish encomiums, not only by the above-cited authors, but by many others of the most respectable character for veracity in pagan antiquity.'—

'Strangers, in general, to the turbulence of ambition, to the fever of intemperance, and all the tumultuous violence of the more boisterous passions, it cannot, however, be denied that the Hindoos are often the victims of one most fatal and degrading vice, insatiable avarice! When

When inflamed with this passion, its influence over their bosom is said to know neither limit nor restraint. In the accumulation of wealth all their faculties are absorbed; but, ever mindful of the grasping extortion of their Mohammedan governors, they are reported to bury that wealth under ground, and dare not trust even their children with the fatal secret. The most cruel tortures cannot compel them to reveal the place of its concealment; the horror of threatened defilement has alone any influence over their firmness, and to avoid this menace, they fly for refuge to the destroying steel, or elude the inventive malice of their persecutors, by swallowing a dose of poison. Thus are the plains of Hindostan, like those of modern Tartary, covered with hoards of secret treasure; and in this manner, may partly be accounted for those enormous sums of silver bullion which are constantly importing into the country, and swallowed up as in a vast vortex, without ever being exported, or visibly increasing the quantity in circulation.

'If however, they are sometimes hurried away by this destructive passion, and by the stings of jealousy, the result of disproportionate marriages, into extremes which militate against that mild cast of character by which they are in general distinguished, the Hindoos have a thousand excellent qualities to counterbalance the defect. They are not less ardent in the love of their country, than zealous in their attachment to the institutions of their forefathers. In domestic life, they are tender and affectionate, and in their morals, for the most part, unsullied.'

The expectations, which the reader may form of the work before us, will be best collected from the account of it given by the author himself:

'From the death of Alexander till the commencement of the Hegira, or Mohammedan æra, in the sixth century, the path of Indian history becomes again gloomy, cheerless, treacherous, and unconnected. We are possessed of few authentic documents to guide, and still fewer important incidents to vary, the uninteresting narrative. We shall trace, however, some vestiges of ancient fortitude and independence in the daring and successful efforts of Sandracottus, the *Sinsarchund* of Ferishtah, to shake off the Macedonian yoke, or rather that of Seleucus, the successor of Alexander, in his Syrian conquests; but we shall still be compelled to acknowledge, notwithstanding the vigorous, and, for the moment, effectual, opposition of Sandracottus, that in the time of Antiochus the Great, India was not entirely independent of the power of the Seleucidæ, since, as we are informed by Polybius, this monarch exacted a tribute of elephants from Saphogasinus, its king, who seems to have been the *Jona* of Ferishtah, or one of his posterity, who, about that period, (two centuries before the Christian æra,) sat on the imperial throne of India. Dark and barren as this part of the work must necessarily be, I shall endeavour, from various fragments relative to India in the history of these Seleucidæ, and that of the Ptolemys in Egypt; from the scanty records of the Greek sovereigns of Bactria, the dynasty of the Arsacidæ, and the other neighbouring nations; and from the twilight glimmering

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ing of information scattered through the pages of Roman history, both of the eastern and western empire; to connect the chain of events, and retain, unextinguished, the spirit that ought to animate every historical composition.

'After this long interval of doubt and obscurity, we shall observe the scene grow gradually more clear and luminous. The clouds that darkened the historical page vanish before the effulgence of the crescent of Mohammed, now rising in baneful glory in the terrified East. Urged on by the sanguinary precepts of the Coran, and the same insatiable ambition that distinguished its author; fired with the love of military glory, and impatient for the honourable title of Gazi, we see the heroes of the Arabian superstition successively pour their armies into the desolated plains of India. Filled, as we must be, with ardent admiration at the invincible fortitude with which, in pursuit of those objects, they surmounted difficulties almost insuperable, and, at the same time fired, as we ought to be, with indignation, excited by nature and Christianity, at their intolerant and destructive principles, we see them penetrate, with equal ease, the snows of Caucasus, and the deserts of Thibet. Descending thence, more terrible than all the inundations of her Ganges, we behold those remorseless marauders plundering her pagodas, sanctioned by the devotion, and rich with the accumulated wealth, of ages; mutilating her idols, venerable from the remotest antiquity; driving her rajahs from their fortresses, before deemed impregnable; and laying the noble capitals of Canouge and Delhi in ruins.'—

'Having taken rather an extensive retrospect of the rise, decline, and fall, of the Gaznavide, the Gauride, and Charazmian, empires, whose respective sovereigns, for more than two centuries, gave law to India; that is, from the first invasion of Sultan Mahmud, in the year 1000, to the defeat of Gelaleddin, by Gengis Khan, on the banks of the Indus, in 1221 of our æra,—having noticed the principal events in the life of that celebrated conqueror, and traced the history of his successors down to Timur Bec, I shall direct my attention to a more particular review of the domestic history of India; and from the ample sources in my possession, record the history of what Mr. Orme calls the first dynasty of Mohammedan kings of Delhi. This dynasty of Afghan emperors, commencing in the person of Cothbeddin Ibeck, and ending in Mahmud, dethroned by Timur, will carry us down to the year 1398, in which year that great founder of the Mogul empire, in India, erected the Tartarian standard on the imperial towers of Delhi.'—

'Timur far surpassed both Alexander and Cæsar, as well in the vast extent of his empire, as in the boundless diffusion of his munificence. I feel an ardent desire of public applause enkindled in my mind, and I am impatient to plunge into this most interesting and splendid period of Asiatic history. But, before I can arrive at its commencement, a tedious and barren waste must be toiled over; and indeed from the death of Timur, till the expulsion of Baber by the Usbecks, great and almost insuperable difficulties will again arise, in the attempt to preserve the connecting chain of history between his descendents, who reigned in Grand Tartary, and the princes of

Hindostan. All that we know for certain, from the few scanty and precarious fragments of history in our possession, chiefly to be found in Mirkhond, Herbelot, and the continuation of Arabshah's Life of Timur, is that the Indian dominions were, in some degree, dependent on the Tartar emperors, who, to overawe those distant provinces, constantly kept a numerous body of cavalry at Gazna, or Candahar, at all times ready to exact the tribute, to extinguish the flame of rising rebellion, and pour, when necessary, their vengeance on that devoted country. For the clearer elucidation of the domestic history of India, during this period, Ferishtah will be of great and important advantage. Timur appointed no regular king to govern Hindostan; but by this author we are informed, that Chizer, whom he had stationed in the soubah of Multan, and its dependencies, rose by degrees, after the destruction of the weak Mahmud, and his weaker successor Lodi, to the imperial dignity, and founded another dynasty of Patan kings of Delhi. This dynasty flourished, with little interruption from the Tartar monarchs, from the death of Timur, in 1405, till the fifth invasion of Hindostan, by the great, the politic, the immortal Baber, whose chequered life was equally distinguished by glory and misfortune; and who, in a pitched battle, fought in 1526, totally defeated Sultan Ibrahim Lodi, at the head of an army of 100,000 Afghans. Baber, more justly than Timur, may be called the genuine founder of the Mogul dynasty in India; as from him, in regular lineal succession, descended that glorious race of kings, who governed India, for the space of near two centuries, with wisdom unequalled, with moderation unprecedented, and with justice hardly impeachable.

'Baber was not less eminent as a scholar than as a warrior: he wrote the commentaries of his own life and actions, called Vakeat Baberi, mentioned in Fraser's Catalogue of Oriental Manuscripts; containing "a full account of his battles in Tartary and India; a correct description of India; the soil, climate, and the manners of the people; a list of the several powers who then possessed India, &c. &c." From the Vakeat Baberi, now deposited among the Bodleian manuscripts, and orginally written in the Mogul language, but translated into Persian, in the reign of Akber, by Khan Khanan, will be extracted a faithful history of this illustrious character, who mounted the throne of the Tartarian empire at twelve years old, and lived to see the new empire, which he had founded in Hindostan, established in peace, and rising in renown.

'Pursuing the regular course of our history, and referring constantly to the dates of Fraser, as the most accurate chronological statement of Indian events of that period, in our possession, after Baber, the chequered life of Homaion, distinguished, in a great degree, like that of Baber, by alternate triumph and depression, will engage our attention. In this life of Homaion, and in those of Scheer Shah, Selim, Mohammed, and Ibrahim, three successive monarchs of Patan extraction, who usurped the Mogul throne, I shall have occasion once more to compare Ferishtah with the Persian history, as it was entirely owing to the vigorous assistance of Tahmas, the Persian monarch, to whom Homaion in his misfortunes fled, that the royal exile was enabled to recover possession of the empire of

Timur

Timur or rather of his father Baber. As, about this period, the affairs of the peninsula of India, and the settlement of the Europeans on its coast will more immediately come under consideration, I shall present my readers with a concise, but authentic, history, of the gradual rise, to eminence and power, of all those European nations who successively established themselves under those emperors in India, from the first landing of the Portuguese at Calicut, to the present day. I shall be particularly attentive to mark the gradations by which the HONOURABLE EAST-INDIA COMPANY OF GREAT BRITAIN have risen to their present exalted state of power and splendour in that country.'—

'The whole life of the illustrious hero who succeeded Homaion is a continued series of great and shining events. The annals of Akber may be justly styled the annals of glory. Equally great in the council and in the field, the zealous patron of genius, and the munificent rewarder of literary merit, he sat on the throne of Hindostan, which he ascended at the early age of thirteen, during a period of fifty years, the most splendid in the history of the Mogul dynasty. The life of Akber, in Ferishtah, is a professed translation of the "Akber Namma," written by Abul Fazil, secretary to that emperor, the most elegant writer of India I have not contented myself, however, with the information to be gleaned from that work, but for the more ample illustration of the events of his reign, have taken a very extensive range through Asiatic annals; and trust that I have concentrated, into one point of view, whatever, relative to Akber, is to be found in the historians and travellers of the last century, or of the present, that can at all be considered as important, or worthy of that distinguished and immortal character.

'With the life of Akber, the Indian history of Ferishtah concludes; but Mr. Gladwin, in his recently published life of the Emperor, Jehaun Geer, as well as many other Oriental scholars, have supplied ample materials for the reigns of his successors, down to Aurengzeb.

'Aurengzeb, who died in the year 7 of the last century, left the richest and most powerful empire in the world to be rent asunder and convulsed to its very centre by the ambitious contentions of his surviving offspring. India had not for ages seen two such immense armies assembled on her plains, as those which accompanied to the field his sons Azem Shah and Mohammed Mauzim, the rival competitors for his vacant throne. The black and aggravated crimes by which the father himself ascended to empire, seem to have been avenged by heaven in the successive destruction of his immediate descendants.

'From the death of the victorious Mauzim to the irruption from Persia, in 1738, there occurs a period of Indian history, the events of which it is painful to record,—a period deeply stained with blood, and marked by many progressive scenes of national calamity, the effect of that general anarchy and that uncontrolled spirit of faction which diffused itself among the Omras at the court of Delhi. From this melancholy æra, the page of the Mogul history hastens rapidly to its close, and the scene grows gradually darker, till at length it is extinguished in tenfold and total gloom. Indeed, of the Tartarian empire,

pire, in India, which flourished in its proudest zenith under the great Aurengzeb, it can hardly with propriety be said that it *gradually declined:* for, as no succeeding emperor arose, endowed with the same great military talents to defend, and animated by the same enlarged views of policy to govern, its vast extent, that empire may, with more precision, be represented as rushing at once, by its own enormous weight, into general and irretrievable ruin.

'The scene of desolation and horror that commenced under the avaricious Nadir Shah, was finally completed by the ferocious Abdallah, who, after plundering the treasury of his master, led back his insatiable Afghans to Delhi, to divide the remaining spoil, and riot on the refuse of the feast. In the general plunder, the Mahrattas and the Rohillas (another tribe of Afghans,) have since largely participated, and, at this day, hardly a vestige remains of that mighty empire, which was founded by the illustrious Timur, and established by the persevering fortitude of Baber, which derived its most permanent column of glory from the wise regulations of Akber, and was carried to its greatest extent by the sword of the dauntless and politic Aurengzeb.

'In contemplating the various and astonishing revolutions which have, within the last century, taken place throughout the whole continent of India, a wide and almost boundless range is opened to the historian. The principal events, so interesting and multifarious, that are comprised within this period, and have led to those revolutions, I shall endeavour to record with fidelity, and to arrange in a regular and connected manner. Amidst the necessary abridgment of so vast a mass of historical information, perspicuity will be my chief aim, and I have spared neither labour nor expence to procure authentic documents.'

If these promises have been strictly fulfilled, we have certainly been unjust to the author: but we are ready here to join issue with him, and to put ourselves on the country. We do not however deny that his style, with many glaring faults, is on the whole perspicuous; nor do we see any reason to call in question his stock of authentic documents:—we do not complain that the *res* is wanting, but the *lecta potenter*;—if we have the *facundia*, it is that which throws a false glare, not that which diffuses a steady light;—and as to the *lucidus ordo*, we are persuaded that, among the admirers of Mr. M., not one will attempt to point out a trace of that feature. Though we cannot perceive that Mr. M. has, in any degree, repressed the impatience which has induced him to usher forth his productions in an unripe and crude state, and though the execution of the magnificent plan above stated communicates less instruction and information than we expected from it, still the careful and attentive reader will find it a field which affords good gleaning; and we would willingly cherish a hope that the parts, which yet remain to be thrown open, will still more liberally reward his toil.

The

The materials of the first book of this work have little relation to India, since they principally respect the empires founded in Asia by the successors of Alexander, and the governments which branched out of them, or which were founded on their subversion.

The second book, in which the modern history may be said properly to commence, opens with a very interesting chapter, which gives a detail of the authors, and their works, whence this history has been compiled.

In the account of Mohammed, the tale rejected by the best modern writers, of the absolute ignorance of the impostor, and of the assistance which he received from a Jew and a Monk, is again revived by Mr. Maurice.

One of the chapters in this book contains a very interesting and well composed narrative of the twelve incursions into India, made by the famous Mahmud, first Emperor of Gazna of that name. Mohammedan zeal, and a love of pillage, are justly said to have equally animated the Mussulman invaders of India.

'Mahmud, inflamed with all the unrelenting bigotry of a true mussulman, at his accession to the throne of Gazna, had made a solemn vow to Heaven, that if ever he should be blessed with profound tranquillity in his own dominions, he would follow the example of his father, in attacking with his whole force, the idolaters of Hindostan. That period was now arrived. His stern justice and politic wisdom made him respected at home, while his valour and martial skill rendered him dreaded abroad. It was a period of repose and felicity to Gazna; but pregnant with storms and tumults, and dismay to Hindostan. In the year one thousand of the Christian æra commenced the earliest of those TWELVE dreadful irruptions, in which, as is well observed by Mr. Orme, he treated the unfortunate Indians, "with all the rigour of a conqueror, and with all the fury of a converter;" in which the innumerable symbols erected in their temples and palaces, by a philosophical and ingenious people, intended to represent the deity and his various attributes, but stigmatized by their more pagan invaders, as unmeaning idols, were compelled to bow before the crescent of Mohammed; in which her pagodas, those stupendous structures, supposed too vast to be the labour of mortal hands, and therefore attributed to celestial architects, were defaced, and where practicable, fired or levelled by his desolating arm; and in which her long accumulated and heaven-devoted treasures were violated and dispersed by a barbarous and rapacious soldiery.

'Lahore was the first object of his attack, and of this province, as allusions to it will frequently occur in these pages, the reader will not be displeased with the following short account from the Ayeen Akbery and the Indian Antiquities. Lahoor, or Lahore, is one of the largest, richest, most fertile, and populous provinces of India, and is watered by five large rivers, whence its native name of Panjab, from PANJ, five, and AB, water. Its length given in the Ayeen Akbery, is 180 coss; and its breadth 86, which taking the coss, with Major

Rennell, at two British statute miles, makes the former 360, and the latter 172 miles. Its exact boundaries having varied from time to time, under successive conquerors, are not necessary to be assigned in this general sketch. They have, however, been hinted at before. These rivers uniting below Multan, form the Sinde or Indus. Lahore, its capital, is situated in the 31st degree of north latitude; and stands on the banks of the Rauvee, the ancient Hydraotes. It is a city of such great antiquity, that if it be not in reality the Bucephala of Alexander, as has been with reason supposed, it will be extremely difficult to fix for certainty upon its founder; for the Ayeen Akbery is silent on the subject.

'Lahore, lying on the direct road that leads into the heart of Hindostan, has ever been harassed, both in ancient and modern æras, by the armies of contending princes, and has experienced every vicissitude to which the alternate triumph and defeat of the sovereign can subject a capital. From the time of Alexander to the present day the Panjab has been more deeply stained with blood than any other province of the empire: and the frequent battles that have been fought within its territory, have probably continued to keep alive that ardour of fortitude for which its rajahs, and the subjects under their government, have been ever distinguished. They opposed with vigour the progress of the Macedonian invader, and the generals of Valid were prevented, as we have seen, principally by the valour of those frontier warriors from penetrating to the Ganges.

'By a prince thus resolutely determined on invasion and war, opportunity would soon be found for renewing hostilities with Jeipal, the nearest Indian rajah on his eastern frontier, and the plea of either retarded or diminished tribute, did in fact immediately bring down upon Peishore, a dependency of Lahore, the new sultan of Gazna, at the head of ten thousand of his chosen horse. Jeipal, though he had been before vanquished by Subuctagi, did not decline the contest, but collecting an army of twelve thousand horse and thirty thousand foot, supported by three hundred chain elephants, advanced to give the invader battle. Contempt, either for the youth, or the comparatively small force of Mahmud, or perhaps an ardent ambition to retrieve his former disgrace, might induce the rajah to this imprudent step. The event was, that after an engagement long and obstinately maintained by both parties, Mahmud, notwithstanding the vast inferiority of his army, in point of numbers, was completely victorious, killed five thousand of Jeipal's troops, and took the rajah himself, together with many of his friends and relatives prisoners. Of the immense booty obtained on this invasion, by Mahmud, some faint idea may be formed from this circumstance, that, round the neck alone of the captive sovereign, were found suspended sixteen strings of jewels, each of which was valued at one hundred and eighty thousand rupees, or about three hundred and twenty thousand pounds sterling. The spoil produced by the capture of the others, and the plunder of the Indian camp, must have been proportionably great. Jeipal, together with his friends and relatives, were at length liberated, on paying a large ransom, and the obligation of an highly increased tribute. Stung with shame and sorrow, the unhappy and degraded monarch returned to his capital,

capital, and there overcome by a tempest of passions, partly impelled by his agitated feelings, and partly in obedience to a custom then prevalent among the Hindoos, which forbad a rajah, who had been twice vanquished by the Mussulmans, longer to hold the reins of government, he resigned the throne to his son. He then ordered a funeral pile to be prepared and kindled, and leaping into the flames, died, according to Hindoo prejudice, as heroically as he had lived.'

The remainder of this detail is full of interest, and affords abundant matter for reflection to the inteiligent reader.

The third and concluding book of this volume brings down the history from the death of Mahmud, to the moment immediately preceding the invasion of the dread Timur. It includes the accounts of the Gaznavide, Gauride, and Charazmian Dynasties, and of the Afghan Dynasties, in which Delhi was made the capital of their territories.

The ensuing extract, which relates to the reign of the fourth prince of the Gaznavide race, discovers the spirit which animated the warfare of that period:

'Burning with resentment against the whole family of Mahmud Gaznavi, for the dreadful and sacrilegious devastations they had, during a period of forty years, committed in Hindostan, in A. D. 1041, the rajahs of the northern provinces combined together, to expel his posterity from all its boundaries. The apparent imbecillity of the Gaznavian empire, drained both of its soldiers and treasure, by frequent and bloody contests with the Seljukian Turks, gave new animation to their hopes of revenge; and the Brahmins, actuated by a holy fury, against the fierce destroyers of their idols, endeavoured by every possible artifice, to keep alive the fire of that impetuous zeal that glowed in every bosom. At the head of this combination, as first in power and eminence, was the rajah of Delhi, who left that city with a most numerous army, that in its progress multiplied itself in such a degree as to sweep all before it. The recovery of the castle of Hussi was the first object of their attack. This they effected without difficulty; as no force which the Mohammedans had in that district, could resist the assault of so mighty an army. Tannassar, long defiled by the unhallowed footsteps of Mussulmen, [Mussulmans] again opened her gates to receive the devout worshippers of her numerous, but degraded divinities. The fort of Naugracut was the next object of assault, but being a more important post, was both more strongly fortified, and more vigorously defended. For four months the resolute garrison, expecting daily succours from Lahore, resisted with equal firmness, every hostile attack, and every overture for accommodation, from the besieging enemy. That the ardour of the assailants might not grow languid during this investment, a story was propagated through the camp, to which the enthusiasm of those bigots listened with extreme avidity, and which not a little contributed to their ultimate success.

'It was reported that the rajah of Delhi had seen a vision, in which the great idol of Naugracut, whose image had been first muti-

lated, and then sent to Gazna by Mahmud, had appeared to him, and informed him, that having now revenged himself upon Gazna, he would meet him at Naugracut, in his former temple. The rumour of this vision, industriously spred far and wide by the interested policy of the Brahmins, drew from all quarters, the infatuated populace, who eagerly enlisted under the banners of a chieftain marching to battle by the command and under the auspices of heaven. By this pious fraud, the multitude were wrought up to such a pitch of superstitious frenzy, as rendered them absolutely irresistible, and the garrison of Naugracut, wearied out, and almost famished for want of provision, were at length compelled to capitulate. It is impossible to describe the general and frantic joy, which this event inspired, especially when the idol itself, or rather an exact representation of it, made at Delhi, and secretly conveyed by the Brahmins, under cover of the night, into the fort, appeared the following morning, conspicuously erected in the centre of the consecrated grove. At the sight of the idol, a shout of tumultuous ecstasy burst from the throng, who exclaimed, that their divinity was returned from Gazna. They then bore him on their shoulders in triumph, to his ancient temple; with circumstances of great pomp and magnificence, celebrated his restoration to his former honours; and renewed their pious vows with additional fervour.

'The fame of this idol was henceforth so widely and generally diffused through that country, that thousands came daily to worship at his shrine, from all parts of Hindostan. Others came to consult him as an oracle upon all occasions of importance, and no expedition was undertaken without the sanction of the god. The mode of consultation was as follows: The person who came to inquire into futurity, after taking some dose of an opiate quality, administered by the Brahmins, reposed on the floor of the temple at the foot of the idol, till the morning, when relating his dreams to those artful priests, the chimæras of a heated and distempered brain, were interpreted by them to be the irrevocable decrees of destiny, productive of the fortune, and generally favourable to the suit, of the inquirer.

'Animated by the success of the rajah of Delhi, the different rajahs that reigned throughout the district of Panjab, who, from being more particularly under the eye, were restrained from hostility, by a more immediate awe of their haughty tyrants, now began to assume bolder confidence, and openly set their masters at defiance. Three of those rajahs with ten thousand horse, and an innumerable army of foot, advanced to Lahore, and invested that ancient city. The Mohammedans, in defence of their laws, families, and effects, exerted all imaginable valour upon this occasion, during the space of seven months; defending the town, street by street: for the walls being decayed, were soon laid in ruins. Finding, however, that in the end they must be rooted out by this defensive mode of war, unless they had speedy succours from Gazna, they bound themselves by a solemn oath, to devote their lives to victory or martyrdom, and suddenly sallying out of the city, presented themselves before the enemy's camp in order of battle. The Hindoos, astonished at their unexpected appearance, or intimidated by the daring resolution they dis-

played, betook themselves instantly to flight, and were pursued with great slaughter, by the triumphant foe.'

The conflict, hardly paralleled even in the bloody annals of Asiatic warfare, between the terrible Gengis and Mohammed the Charazmian, with its causes, and the result, are such as must particularly fix the attention of the reader; and they are so singular that we are induced to add the passages in which they are detailed, although this article is already too much lengthened.

'GENGIS KHAN'S INVASION OF SOUTHERN ASIA.

'Triumphant on every field where his banners had hitherto been displayed, they represent to us the emperor of the Moguls as content with his large acquired moiety of divided Asia, as anxious to cultivate friendship and commerce with the Charazmian monarch; as sending successive ambassadors to announce these friendly sentiments, and confirming them by ample presents of the richest productions of his country. The stern, suspicious, unaccommodating nature of the sultan, led him to consider these presents as snares, and those ambassadors as spies. His haughty soul brooked not a rival, especially an infidel rival; and secretly meditated that dreadful blow which, though it convulsed Asia, and plunged myriads of human beings into the abyss of eternity, he seemed to think deserving of the great Mohammed, in the full career and confidence of victory, to strike. The species of insult which he offered to Gengis, was of a nature never to be forgotten or forgiven. In every age, and among the most barbarous people, the character of an *ambassador*, the image of the sovereign, has ever been held sacred. The arrestation and murder, by his order, of three ambassadors and a caravan of peaceable merchants at Otrar, instantly became the bloody signal of a war interminable, unextinguishable, but by the death of one or of the other of the royal champions. Called upon by fresh ambassadors, dispatched by the policy of Gengis to demand an explanation of the fact, the sultan returned no other answer than a repetition of the daring crime; and the heads of three other noble Moguls severed by the sabres of his attendants, while delivering their master's commands, stained with blood the foot of the throne of the perfidious tyrant. Gengis, on receiving this intelligence, in the fury and anguish of his heart, is said to have separated himself for three days and three nights, from his family, and during that space, to have devoutly supplicated the assistance of heaven against a monster black with so many crimes. It is added, but by a Christian historian, (Abulfarajius,) that on the third night, a person in the habit of a Christian monk appeared to him in a dream, and encouraged him to fear not, but instantly lead his troops to battle; a relation justly rejected by his more modern biographer, as unworthy a Christian monk, and the God of Christianity. The spirit that incited Gengis to arms was the dæmon ambition, and the vision which he beheld was the vast and beautiful landscape of southern Asia, full of noble cities, abundantly stored with the costly articles of luxurious com-

merce reciprocal among various and distant nations, that had grown rich under the protection of the more peaceable sultans of the Gaznavide and Seljuk dynasties. Though plunder and aggrandizement were the real, the primary object of Gengis; yet the murder of his ambassadors was a theme on which he neglected not to expatiate in terms of the warmest and bitterest invective; imparting in a bold and manly strain of eloquence, the fire and vengeance that glowed in his own bosom, to those of his sons and his courtiers. The battalions of his immense army were instantly put in motion; the arms of the common men were the sabre, the bow, the quiver full of arrows, and the battle-axe. All the officers of this army were clothed in complete suits of mail, and their horses also wore breast plates of iron, and other defensive armour impenetrable by the arrows of the enemy. The positive order of Gengis was, that every man should fight in his station till he conquered or fell; the flight of individuals or of single squadrons, was to be punished with instant death, by their nearest comrades. By a singular law of the military code of Gengis, it was ordained, that if *ten* commanders at the head of their combined squadrons, the whole army being divided into bodies regulated by that number, should think it necessary to *retreat*, they were at liberty to do so; but smaller parties, by a retrograde movement, rushed only on inevitable destruction. In this manner disciplined and armed, the soldiers of Gengis, under the command of himself and his four valiant sons, marched forth to battle, and on a review previous to the engagement, were found to consist of no less than seven hundred thousand men; MEN, says the historian, of an athletic make, of high-braced vigorous sinews, impatient for action, breathing nothing but war and blood; yet though fiery, perfectly obedient to their prince: MEN, who unlike the dainty Moslems, could banquet on any kind of food, wolves, bears, and dogs; MEN able to brave the rigours of every climate, and soundly slumber on a bed of flint.

'Mohammed, without terror, heard from his scouts the details of their number and ferocity. He considered these savage hordes as utterly destitute of all true military science, and as unable to stand before the veteran conquerors of Persia, who had triumphed over the bravest nations of Asia, and who themselves amounted to four hundred thousand fighting men, being the flower of the warlike regions dispersed over the domains of this mighty prince in Iran, Transoxiana, Chorasan, and all the vast frontier of Western India. The terrible concussion of two such immense armies can be better conceived than described. It took place, according to Le Croix, at Karaku, near Otrar, north of the river Jaxartes, in A.H. 615, or A. D. 1218, a memorable epoch in Eastern annals, being the date of the first grand irruption of the Moguls and Tartars into Southern Asia, and with such intense fury did the battle last, that the darkness of the night alone separated the contending armies. The ensuing morn discovered a sight horrible to humanity, one hundred and sixty thousand Charazmians, and a still more numerous body of Moguls, weltering in an ocean of human blood. A dreadful pause ensued; the Charazmian army retired within its lines, where for some days it remained strongly

intrenched, to avoid the hazard of surprize from the Moguls, and at length a retreat before so potent and still numerous an enemy was resolved upon, and effected. All the considerable cities and strong holds of Charazm and Transoxiana were powerfully reinforced with fresh troops; and the sultan hoped to retard, at least, if not to weary out, the Mogul emperors, by the length of tedious sieges, and the desultory harassing attacks of a large flying army of horse, of one part of which he took himself the command, and gave the other to his brave son, Gelaleddin, who had gloriously distinguished himself during the late severe engagement. But Gengis had four sons, lions in courage like himself, and these were placed at the head of armies vast in numbers, and ever supplied with fresh recruits from the still overflowing tribes of the north. Opposition from a routed and dispirited army was utterly fruitless. Otrar, though it had been recently strengthened with a body of no less than sixty thousand troops, after a desperate resistance of five months, fell beneath the vigorous assaults of his sons OCTAI and ZAGATHAI. The subjugation of the other great cities lying on or near the Jaxartes, particularly the celebrated and well fortified city of Cogende, situated in about the latitude of 41° 25′, was committed to his eldest son TUSHI; and it must be owned, that if the besiegers shewed invincible courage in assailing, the besieged, in every instance, resisted with an ardour and an obstinacy that evinced equal loyalty to their prince, and love of their country. But the due reward of unsuccessful valour was not allotted to the unfortunate Charazmians by the ungenerous Moguls. After being despoiled of their property they were generally led forth to be butchered in cold blood, without distinction of either age or sex, by their savage conquerors, who, under the pretext of avenging the outrage and murder at Otrar, seemed to delight in shedding torrents of Mohammedan blood: unconscious of pity, and callous to all remorse.'

The exploits of the brave Gelaleddin are recorded in a manner worthy of the subject: indeed the narrative shews to great advantage the talents of Mr. Maurice, and proves that he wants nothing from Nature to intitle him to class in the first rank of historians.

In relating the end of Gengis, the author accompanies it with a very striking observation:

'After recovering Tangut by his arms, and awing China to peace by the terror of his frown, this great, this politic, but stern and sanguinary prince, being seized with a fever, the consequence of extreme grief for the loss of his most beloved son, Tushi Khan, expired on his march into the latter country, in the latter end of A.H. 623, or A.D. 1226, in the seventy-third year of his age, and the twenty-fifth of his reign. He who without pity had slaughtered above two millions of the human race, had made so many children fatherless, and so many fathers childless, yet could not bear the loss of one son, though three remained to cherish his declining age:—astonishing proof of exquisite sensibility and the most callous ferocity dwelling in the same bosom.'

In the history of the second Gauride Dynasty, founded by Cuttub, with the exception of the prosperous and splendid reign of Balin, the reader will find nothing that can greatly interest him.

Among the monarchs with which the Chilligi tribe furnished Delhi, Alla, an usurper, alone attracts our regard by his able and successful administration. The successive invasions of the Deccan, the first of which he conducted, and the incredible booty which they yielded, impart very high interest to this portion of the Indian narrative.

The present volume closes with the extinction of the Afghan Dynasty; in the next, the author proposes to place before the reader that great scourge of the Eastern world, the dreadful Timur: on which occasion we shall be again happy to pay our respects to Mr. Maurice, trusting that we shall meet him chargeable with fewer faults, and retaining his present claims to praise.

A coloured map of Hindostan is prefixed to Part II.

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Art. VII. *The History of England,* from the Peace of 1783 to the Treaty concluded at Amiens in 1802: being a Continuation of Coote's 'History of England from the earliest Dawn of Record to the Peace of 1783.' By the Author of the former Part. 8vo. pp. 466. 8s. Boards. Kearsley. 1803.

Our readers have already * been sufficiently informed of the merits of this writer as an historian, for we have introduced him to their acquaintance as accurate and well-informed, moderate and candid. Though in his pages we are not enlightened by what is termed the philosophy of history, we are never startled by paradox, nor disgusted by prejudice. Though his style is not marked by strength, nor distinguished by elegance, it is never deficient in perspicuity and ease, and is remarkably exempt from every species of affectation. To his original design we objected, because we conceived it to be too comprehensive for an abridgment, and at the same time not sufficiently ample to give a satisfactory view of many interesting events in our annals: but the execution of the work we represented as reflecting credit on the talents and knowlege of the author.—Such being our sentiments, which we fully expressed, we are both sorry and surprized to learn from the Preface, that the writer has reason to be dissatisfied with the reception of his labours; which has proved so little favourable, as to make him regret *something beyond the loss of time* in presenting them to the public.

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* See Rev. Vols. xxviii. and xxix. N. S.

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The critic's province, however, extending only to the *merits* of a work, we shall proceed to state the principal contents of this volume, and express our opinion of the manner in which it is executed.—Many great and important events form its subject; events at the same time of such late occurrence, as to prevent the necessity of our enlarging on them. The debates, to which his Majesty's indisposition in 1789 gave rise, are fresh in the recollection of most readers; the conduct, the progress, and the termination of Mr. Hastings's Trial are also so well known that, although this author's account is judicious and impartial, we deem it unnecessary to make any extract.—The insurrections of our seamen, and the rebellion in Ireland, with the subsequent union of the two countries, are narrated with impartiality and clearness. Of the latter event, Dr. Coote says that 'few are disposed to deny that it was one of the most judicious acts of this eventful reign;' indeed his Majesty, after its enactment, declared that he "should ever consider this great measure as the happiest event of his reign."

In the period embraced by the present volume, in addition to the occurrences which we have already mentioned, the author's attention has of necessity been directed to the French Revolution. The circumstances of this event, so far as they have had an influence on this country, are discussed by Dr. Coote in as satisfactory a manner as the circumscribed nature of his plan would admit; and the conduct and progress of the war, which it occasioned, are fairly and succinctly narrated. On the subject of the Treaty of Amiens, which the ambition of our enemy had *virtually* infringed, and thus again involved us in the miseries of war, the historian shall speak for himself:

'While this definitive treaty was yet unadjusted, a great force was deemed necessary for the national defence, as doubts were entertained of the pacific inclinations of the first consul of France. From the eagerness of the public for a complete peace, the interval of negotiation seemed a tedious delay; but the anxiety of suspense was at length removed. A treaty was signed at Amiens by the marquis Cornwallis and Joseph Bonaparté, differing from the preliminaries in the following points. A part of Portuguese Guiana was given up to the French by a new adjustment of boundaries. With regard to Malta, it was stipulated that no French or English *tongue*, or class of knights, should be allowed; that one half of the soldiers in garrison should be natives, and the rest should be furnished for a time by the king of Naples; that the independence of the island under the sway of the knights should be guarantied by France, Great Britain, Austria, Spain, Russia, and Prussia; and that it's ports should be free to all nations. It was agreed that the prince of Orange should receive compensation for his loss of property and of power. Persons who might hereafter be accused of murder, forgery, and fraudulent bankruptcy, were to be surrendered to the demands of each party.

'This

'This treaty was only opposed by a very small part of either house. Mr. Windham endeavoured to prove it's weakness, fallacy, and insecurity, and to rouse the zeal of the country against the insatiate eagerness of Gallic ambition, and the restless spirit of Jacobinical machination. In discussing the terms to which we had agreed, he contended that we had placed Malta in the hands of the French; that the cape of Good Hope was in fact at their disposal; that, from this settlement and Cochin, they might make hostile preparations against British India; and that we had suffered them to trick us in that part of the negotiation which concerned Portugal. He blamed the ministers for the non-revival of former treaties, as the omission might affect our interests in the bay of Honduras, and even shake the foundation of our power in India. He also complained of their acquiescence in the cession of Louisiana to the French, who by this advantage, might obtain the command of North America, while that of South-America would be in a great measure secured to them by the medium of the river of Amazons. In treating of the war, he lamented that it had been pursued merely as a common war, and that it had not been carried on with that extraordinary spirit which alone could prevent the mischievous extension of Jacobinical principles.

'Our exertions, he thought, had by no means been equal to our resources; and we certainly had not been successful in repelling the danger which we sought to avert. We had suffered the French to acquire as great a degree of power in ten years, as the Romans had obtained in several centuries. While we were menaced by their ambition, we ought to be extremely vigilant and alert; and he would therefore move for an address to his majesty, promising to keep inviolate the public faith, but hinting a disapprobation of some of the engagements into which he had entered, and requesting him to take measures, both by negotiation and by ample establishments naval and military, for obviating the danger that might arise from such stipulations, or from other circumstances in the posture of affairs. Lord Hawkesbury was sensible of the enormous aggrandisement of the French republic, but did not deem that a sufficient reason for an indefinite continuance of the war. He was surprised at the apprehensions entertained by Mr. Windham of the influence of France in North and South America, as it appeared to him to be very inconsiderable. He maintained that the treaty amply provided, by a strong guaranty, for the independence of Malta; that, while we had a powerful army, we had no cause to be alarmed at the sway which the French might obtain at the Cape; that, though we had resigned many of our conquests, we had insisted on retaining two of the most important naval stations in the East and West Indies; and that the ministers had, in all the proceedings, consulted the honor and security of the nation as strenuously as any of the opponents of the peace could expect upon an impartial review of the state of Europe at the time of the negotiation. Mr. Dundas highly disapproved the cession of Malta and the Cape; yet refused to concur in a vote of censure. Mr. Addington allowed, that the treaty was not such as the people could receive with extravagant joy or exultation; but he did not think it dishonorable. He had endeavoured to procure

procure the best terms, and, in agreeing to those which were now concluded, he had yielded to the dictates of prudence. Mr. Sheridan imputed greater blame to those ministers who had reduced the country to a state which rendered such a peace necessary, than to those who had concluded the treaty.

'Only twenty members voted for the address proposed by Mr. Windham, while 276 gave their suffrages against it. An amendment moved by lord Hawkesbury, expressing an approbation of the treaty, was then adopted. A debate of the same kind occurred in the house of peers, on the motion of lord Grenville for an address of dissatisfaction. The duke of Norfolk having suggested such an amendment as coincided with the views of the ministry, a majority of 106 voted in support of the peace.

'In negotiating a pacification, three objects ought to be kept in view—*honor*, *advantage*, and *security*. That we succeeded in all these desirable points of attainment, none will be so hardy as to affirm. After the frequent boasts of a full determination of acquiring indemnity, the dereliction of the far greater part of our conquests, and the loss of the effect of a brilliant series of naval triumphs, besides a very oppressive augmentation of the national debt, present a scene remarkably and essentially different from the prospect to which we were taught to look forward. The *honor* of a negotiation does not consist in being dislodged from the commanding posts which the conductors of the war affected to occupy and to secure, or in being successively driven to the last verge of evasion; nor will such a close of hostility be considered as a material *advantage* by the generality of political speculators; and in point of *security*, we have less reason to boast of our complete ability of self-defence than we had before the war commenced it's mischievous career. Yet the ministers deserve not the severity of censure. They had a difficult task to execute. The unfortunate predicament in which the preceding leaders of the cabinet had involved the nation, rendered peace particularly necessary; and the extraordinary and portentous increase of the power of France, with the high claims of a nation which accused Great-Britain of the guilt of aggression, precluded the hope of favourable or beneficial terms. Viewed with reference to this state of affairs, the treaty of Amiens calls for acquiescence and approbation, rather than disgust, objection, or complaint; and if it should not be permanent, the fault will be that of the rash statesman whose impolicy promoted by war the extension of Gallic power, not that of the prudent minister whose endeavours were exerted for the restoration of peace. In the mean time, let us not give way to pusillanimity or despondence. Though our security has been diminished, our resources are by no means contemptible. Confining our views to insular defence, we may defy the threatening storm; and, by the terrors of a naval war, we may humble the arrogance of the enemy, and produce a desire of continued peace.'

We believe that the majority of the country entertained sentiments regarding the Treaty of Amiens, similar to those which are here expressed by Dr. Coote.

With

With the succeeding account of Mr. Burke, some of our readers will be dissatisfied, as deeming it scarcely just to the merits of that very extraordinary man:

'In the last month of this session, the country was deprived, by death, of the political exertions of one of the greatest men of the age —Mr. Edmund Burke. He had for some time retired from parliament, having resigned his seat to his son, whose decease in the flower of his age was a great shock to his declining parent. That Mr. Burke possessed great abilities, and a genius superior to that which is usually observed among mankind, will not, we think, be denied by any one. He had a great compass of mind, a considerable share of learning, and a never failing stream of eloquence. He adorned every subject which he handled, and animated every speech with the excursions of fancy and the charms of imagery. His allusions, however, were sometimes of the coarsest kind, drawn from the lowest objects of nature and of art. He was too digressive, frequently deficient in argument, and so absurdly hyperbolical, that he would magnify a speck to an immense body, or, if it equally suited the temporary purpose of his oratory, would diminish a mountain to a mole-hill. His invectives, both in speaking and writing, were so bitter and severe, that they seemed to argue a malignity of disposition, though they rather proceeded from an irritability of temper. His political principles were more favourable to aristocratical claims than to popular freedom; and he was in his heart a Tory even when he affected (during the American war) to be a zealous Whig. In private life he was generally benevolent and friendly; a kind husband, father, and master. He was a pleasing and instructive companion; and no one could long be a witness to his conversation without being convinced of the great extent of his understanding.'

We close our extracts with the account of Mr. Pitt's Resignation; a passage in which we were sorry to observe some contemptuous expressions, which are not usual with Dr. Coote when speaking either of men or of measures:

'In these debates, occasional reference was made to the case of the Hibernian catholics, whose claims, after the completion of the act of union, formed a particular subject of discussion in the cabinet. The premier and lord Grenville represented an acquiescence in the wishes of those sectaries as necessary for the perfect consolidation of the interests of the united kingdom, and affirmed that, as no danger could arise from it, policy required the concession. Several of the royal counsellors expressed opposite sentiments; and his Majesty took a decided part in the dispute, alleging that the oath taken by him at his coronation precluded his assent to a scheme which might in its consequences endanger the religious establishment. As this repugnance obstructed the recommendation of the measure to the parliament, and diminished the probability of its success, Mr. Pitt declared that he conceived himself bound by his duty, his conscience, and

and his honour, to resign that situation in which he was not at full liberty to pursue his ideas of equity and public benefit. His resignation was accepted, as was also that of lord Grenville; and earl Spencer, at the same time, relinquished all concern in the affairs of the admiralty, which he had directed with credit to himself and advantage to his country.

'Whether the reason alleged by Mr. Pitt for his retreat from office formed his real motive, or was merely a pretext, may fairly be doubted. We are inclined to imagine, that he was less influenced on this occasion by the disappointment of his hopes of gratifying the catholics of Ireland, than by a wish to extricate himself, with some appearance of honour, from that unpleasant situation in which he had involved himself by his declarations and his conduct during the war. He was convinced that peace was the general desire of the nation; and, being apprehensive that his efforts for procuring it would not be successful, as he had rendered himself highly obnoxious to the rulers of France, he resolved to give way to the appointment of a successor, and thus make an opening for an effectual negotiation. His mode of retreat, under the pretence of a dispute respecting the catholics, was not very manly; but, as the effect was fortunate, we shall not be severe in examining or arraigning the policy which led to it.

'After some deliberation, his Majesty selected Mr. Addington for the office of his first minister. That gentleman had long been an intimate friend of Mr. Pitt, whose influence had placed him in the chair of the house of commons, which he filled with high reputation. In point of oratory he is inferior to his patron, but is perhaps equal to him in political wisdom. This, indeed, is faint praise from one who never considered Mr. Pitt as a very judicious or able statesman. Lord Hawkesbury was selected for the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of lord Grenville; and the earl of St. Vincent was deemed a proper successor to earl Spencer.

'The minister elect having resigned the office of speaker, Lord Hawkesbury moved that Sir John Mitford should be called to the chair; and the house agreed to the proposal. The aspiring member hinted, that he did not consider this dignity as the *ne plus ultrà* of his ambition, but merely as a step to other honours and emoluments.'

We shall now dismiss this Article, with the observation that the present volume forms a very fit companion for its predecessors; and that together they present a satisfactory view of our history.

S.R.

ART. VIII. *Letters written by the late Earl of Chatham* to his Nephew Thomas Pitt, Esq. (afterwards Lord Camelford) then at Cambridge. Crown 8vo. pp. 130. 5s. Boards. Payne. 1804.

THIS little volume possesses so many claims to notice, that we are happy in introducing it thus early to the acquaintance of our readers. In these Letters, we view Lord Chatham in

in a very different light from that in which we have been accustomed to contemplate him. Instead of the commanding orator, or the accomplished statesman, we here see him engaged in the duties of domestic life, and exercising the powers of his enlightened understanding in the education of a near relative. The instructions given by him are of the purest nature, and calculated to produce a perfect character; and he directs the attention of his pupil chiefly to the practice of moral and religious duties, which are represented as the groundwork of all human excellence. The Letters, indeed, exhibit those virtuous and admirable sentiments, which rendered the noble writer a fit companion for West and Lyttelton; and they discover that similarity of character, in the most essential particulars, which must have rendered the meetings of these illustrious men at Wickham so peculiarly interesting. "West was very often," says Johnson, "visited by Lyttelton and Pitt, who, when they were weary of faction and debates, used at Wickham to find books and quiet, a decent table, and literary conversation. There is at Wickham a walk made by Pitt; and, what is of far more importance, at Wickham Lyttelton received that conviction which produced his *Dissertation on St. Paul.*"—This volume evidently shews that its author derived his share of improvement from so beneficial an intercourse, and that he was anxious to contribute it for the advantage of others.

The Letters are only twenty-three in number, and some of them are remarkable merely as proceeding from so distinguished a character, while others are recommended by intrinsic excellence. The composition of them is not always polished and correct, but displays the ease of unstudied and familiar correspondence —Of their authenticity, no doubt can be entertained, since they are edited by Lord Grenville, and by him dedicated to the present Mr. Pitt.

The third and fourth Letters we shall entirely transcribe, on account of the importance of the advice which they inculcate:

'Your letter from Cambridge affords me many very sensible pleasures: *first*, that you are *at last* in a proper place for study and improvement, instead of losing any more of that most precious thing, time, in London. In the next place that you seem pleased with the particular society you are placed in, and with the gentleman to whose care and instructions you are committed: and above all I applaud the sound, right sense, and love of virtue, which appears through your whole letter. You are already possessed of the true clue to guide you through this dangerous and perplexing part of your life's journey, the years of education; and upon which, the complexion of all the rest of your days will infallibly depend: I say you have the true clue to guide you, in the maxim you lay down in your letter to me, namely, that the use

of

of learning is, to render a man more wise and virtuous; not merely to make him more learned. Macte tuâ Virtute; Go on, my dear boy, by this golden rule, and you cannot fail to become every thing your generous heart prompts you to wish to be, and that mine most affectionately wishes for you. There is but one danger in your way; and that is, perhaps, natural enough to your age, the love of pleasure, or the fear of close application and laborious diligence. With the last there is nothing you may not conquer: and the first is sure to conquer and inslave whoever does not strenuously and generously resist the first allurements of it, lest by small indulgencies, he fall under the yoke of irresistible habit. Vitanda est Improba Siren, Desidia, I desire may be affixt to the curtains of your bed, and to the walls of your chambers. If you do not rise early, you never can make any progress worth talking of; and another rule is, if you do not set apart your hours of reading, and never suffer yourself or any one else to break in upon them, your days will slip through your hands, unprofitably and frivolously: unpraised by all you wish to please, and really *unenjoyable* to yourself. Be assured, whatever you take from pleasure, amusements, or indolence, for these first few years of your life, will repay you a hundred fold, in the pleasures, honours, and advantages of all the remainder of your days. My heart is so full of the most earnest desire that you should do well, that I find my letter has run into some length, which you will, I know, be so good to excuse. There remains now nothing to trouble you with but a little plan for the beginning of your studies, which I desire, in a particular manner, may be exactly followed in every tittle. You are to qualify yourself for the part in society, to which your birth and estate call you. You are to be a gentleman of such learning and qualifications as may distinguish you in the service of your country hereafter; not a pedant, who reads only to be called learned, instead of considering learning as an instrument only for action. Give me leave therefore, my dear nephew, who have gone before you, to point out to you the dangers in your road; to guard you against such things, as I experience my own defects to arise from; and at the same time, if I have had any little successes, in the world, to guide you to what I have drawn many helps from. I have not the pleasure of knowing the gentleman who is your tutor, but I dare say he is every way equal to such a charge, which I think no small one. You will communicate this letter to him, and I hope he will be so good to concur with me, as to the course of study I desire you may begin with; and that such books, and such only, as I have pointed out, may be read: They are as follows: Euclid; a Course of Logic; a Course of experimental Philosophy; Locke's Conduct of the Understanding; his Treatise also on the Understanding; his Treatise on Government, and Letters on Toleration. I desire, for the present, no books of poetry, but Horace and Virgil; of Horace the Odes, but above all, the Epistles and Ars Poetica. These parts, Nocturnâ versate manu, versate diurnâ. Tully de Officiis, de Amicitiâ, de Senectute. His Catilinarian Orations and Philippics. Sallust. At leisure hours, an abridgment of the History of England to be run through, in order to settle in the mind a general chronological order and series of principal events, and

succession

succession of kings: proper books of English history, on the true principles of our happy constitution, shall be pointed out afterwards. Burnet's History of the Reformation, abridged by himself, to be read with great care. Father Paul on beneficiary Matters, in English. A French master, and only Moliere's Plays to be read with him, or by yourself, till you have gone through them all. Spectators, especially Mr. Addison's papers, to be read very frequently at broken times in your room. I make it my request that you will forbear drawing, totally, while you are at Cambridge: and not meddle with Greek, otherwise than to know a little the etymology of words in Latin, or English, or French: nor to meddle with Italian. I hope this little course will soon be run through: I intend it as a general foundation for many things, of infinite utility, to come as soon as this is finished.

'Believe me,
With the truest affection,
My dear Nephew,
Ever yours.

'Keep this letter and read it again.'

'You will hardly have read over one very long letter from me before you are troubled with a second. I intended to have *writ* soon, but I do it the sooner on account of your letter to your aunt, which she transmitted to me here. If any thing, my dear boy, could have happened to raise you higher in my esteem, and to endear you more to me, it is the amiable abhorrence you feel for the scene of vice and folly, (and of real misery and perdition, under the false notion of pleasure and spirit,) which has opened to you at your college, and at the same time, the manly, brave, generous, and wise resolution and true spirit, with which you resisted and repulsed the first attempts upon a mind and heart, I thank God, infinitely too firm and noble, as well as too elegant and enlightened, to be in any danger of yielding to such contemptible and wretched corruptions. You charm me with the description of Mr. Wheler *, and while you say you could adore him, I could adore you for the natural, genuine love of virtue, which speaks in all you feel, say, or do. As to your companions let this be your rule. Cultivate the acquaintance with Mr. Wheler which you have so fortunately begun: and in general, be sure to associate with men much older than yourself: scholars whenever you can: but always with men of decent and honourable lives. As their age and learning, superior both to your own, must necessarily, in good sense, and in the view of acquiring knowledge from them, entitle them to all deference, and submission of your own rights to theirs, you will particularly practise that first and greatest rule for pleasing in conversation, as well as for drawing instruction and improvement from the company of one's superiors in age and knowledge, namely, to be a

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'* The Rev. John Wheler, prebendary of Westminster. The friendship formed between this gentleman and Lord Camelford at so early a period of their lives, was founded in mutual esteem, and continued uninterrupted till Lord Camelford's death.'

patient

patient, attentive, and well bred hearer, and to answer with modesty: to deliver your own opinions sparingly and with proper diffidence; and if you are forced to desire farther information or explanation upon a point, to do it with proper apologies for the trouble you give: or if obliged to differ, to do it with all possible candour, and an unprejudiced desire to find and ascertain truth, with an entire indifference to the side on which that truth is to be found. There is likewise a particular attention required to contradict with good manners; such as, begging pardon, begging leave to doubt, and such like phrases. Pythagoras enjoined his scholars an absolute silence for a long noviciate. I am far from approving such a taciturnity: but I highly recommend the end and intent of Pythagoras's injunction; which is to dedicate the first parts of life more to hear and learn, in order to collect materials, out of which to form opinions founded on proper lights, and well examined sound principles, than to be presuming, prompt, and flippant in hazarding one's own slight crude notions of things; and thereby exposing the nakedness and emptiness of the mind, like a house opened to company before it is fitted either with necessaries, or any ornaments for their reception and entertainment. And not only will this disgrace follow from such temerity and presumption, but a more serious danger is sure to ensue, that is, the embracing errors for truths, prejudices for principles; and when that is once done, (no matter how vainly and weakly,) the adhering perhaps to false and dangerous notions, only because one has declared for them, and submitting, for life, the understanding and conscience to a yoke of base and servile prejudices, vainly taken up and obstinately retained. This will never be your danger; but I thought it not amiss to offer these reflections to your thoughts. As to your manner of behaving towards these unhappy young gentlemen you describe, let it be manly and easy; decline their parties with civility; retort their raillery with raillery, always tempered with good breeding: if they banter your regularity, order, decency, and love of study, banter in return their neglect of them; and venture to own frankly, that you came to Cambridge to learn what you can, not to follow what they are pleased to call pleasure. In short, let your external behaviour to them be as full of politeness and ease as your inward estimation of them is full of pity, mixed with contempt. I come now to the part of the advice I have to offer to you, which most nearly concerns your welfare, and upon which every good and honourable purpose of your life will assuredly turn; I mean the keeping up in your heart the true sentiments of religion. If you are not right towards God, you can never be so towards man: the noblest sentiment of the human breast is here brought to the test. Is gratitude in the number of a man's virtues? if it be, the highest benefactor demands the warmest returns of gratitude, love, and praise Ingratum qui dixerit, omnia dixit. If a man wants this virtue where there are infinite obligations to excite and quicken it, he will be likely to want all others towards his fellow-creatures, whose utmost gifts are poor compared to those he daily receives at the hands of his never-failing Almighty Friend. Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth, is big with the deepest wisdom: The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom;

and, an upright heart, that is understanding. This is eternally true, whether the wits and rakes of Cambridge allow it or not: nay, I must add of this religious wisdom, Her ways are ways of pleasantness, and all her paths are peace, whatever your young gentlemen of pleasure think of a whore and a bottle, a tainted health and battered constitution. Hold fast therefore by this sheet-anchor of happiness, Religion; you will often want it in the times of most danger; the storms and tempests of life. Cherish true religion as preciously as you will fly with abhorrence and contempt superstition and enthusiasm. The first is the perfection and glory of the human nature; the two last the depravation and disgrace of it. Remember the essence of religion is, a heart void of offence towards God and man; not subtle speculative opinions, but an active vital principle of faith. The words of a heathen were so fine that I must give them to you: Compositum Jus, Fasque Animi, Sanctosque Recessus Mentis, et incoctum generoso Pectus Honesto.

'Go on, my dear child, in the admirable dispositions you have towards all that is right and good, and make yourself the love and admiration of the world! I have neither paper nor words to tell you how tenderly

'I am yours.'

On the subject of behaviour, we find some excellent rules; which, notwithstanding the extent of the preceding quotation, we shall venture to quote:

'Behaviour is of infinite advantage or prejudice to a man, as he happens to have formed it to a graceful, noble, engaging, and proper manner, or to a vulgar, coarse, ill bred, or awkward and ungenteel one. Behaviour, though an external thing which seems rather to belong to the body than to the mind, is certainly founded in considerable virtues: though I have known instances of good men, with something very revolting and offensive in their manner of behaviour, especially when they have the misfortune to be naturally very awkward and ungenteel; and which their mistaken friends have helped to confirm them in, by telling them, they were above such trifles, as being genteel, dancing, fencing, riding, and doing all manly exercises, with grace and vigour. As if the body, because inferior, were not a part of the composition of man: and the proper, easy, ready, and graceful use of himself, both in mind and limb, did not go to make up the character of an accomplished man. You are in no danger of falling into this preposterous error: and I had a great pleasure in finding you when I first saw you in London, so well disposed by nature, and so properly attentive to make yourself genteel in person, and well-bred in behaviour. I am very glad you have taken a fencing master: that exercise will give you some manly, firm, and graceful attitudes: open your chest, place your head upright, and plant you well upon your legs. As to the use of the sword, it is well to know it: but remember, my dearest nephew, it is a science of defence: and that a sword can never be employed by the hand of a man of virtue, in any other cause. As to the carriage of your person, be particularly careful, as you are tall and thin, not to get a habit of stooping; nothing has so poor a look:

look: above all things avoid contracting any peculiar gesticulations of the body, or movements of the muscles of the face. It is rare to see in any one a graceful laughter; it is generally better to smile than laugh out, especially to contract a habit of laughing at small or no jokes. Sometimes it would be affectation, or worse, mere moroseness, not to laugh heartily, when the truly ridiculous circumstances of an incident, or the true pleasantry and wit of a thing, call for and justify it; but the trick of laughing frivolously is by all means to be avoided: Risu inepto, Res ineptior nulla est. Now as to politeness; many have attempted definitions of it: I believe it is best to be known by description; definition not being able to comprise it. I would however venture to call it benevolence in trifles, or the preference of others to ourselves in little daily hourly occurrences in the commerce of life. A better place, a more commodious seat, priority in being helped at table, &c. what is it but sacrificing ourselves in such trifles to the convenience and pleasure of others? And this constitutes true politeness. It is a perpetual attention, (by habit it grows easy and natural to us), to the little wants of those we are with, by which we either prevent, or remove them. Bowing, ceremonious, formal compliments, stiff civilities will never be politeness: that must be easy, natural, unstudied, manly, noble. And what will give this, but a mind benevolent, and perpetually attentive to exert that amiable disposition in trifles towards all you converse and live with? Benevolence in greater matters takes a higher name, and is the queen of virtues. Nothing is so incompatible with politeness as any trick of absence of mind. I would trouble you with a word or two more upon some branches of behaviour, which have a more serious moral obligation in them, than those of mere politeness; which are equally important in the eye of the world. I mean a proper behaviour, adapted to the respective relations we stand in towards the different ranks of superiors, equals, and inferiors. Let your behaviour towards superiors, in dignity, age, learning, or any distinguished excellence, be full of respect, deference, and modesty. Towards equals, nothing becomes a man so well as well-bred ease, polite freedom, generous frankness, manly spirit always tempered with gentleness and sweetness of manner, noble sincerity, candour, and openness of heart, qualified and restrained within the bounds of discretion and prudence, and ever limited by a sacred regard to secrecy, in all things entrusted to it, and an inviolable attachment to your word. To inferiors, gentleness, condescension, and affability, is the only dignity. Towards servants, never accustom yourself to rough and passionate language. When they are good we should consider them as humiles Amici, as fellow Christians, ut Conservi: and when they are bad, pity, admonish, and part with them if incorrigible. On all occasions beware, my dear child, of Anger, that dæmon, that destroyer of our peace. Ira furor brevis est, animum rege qui nisi paret Imperat, hunc frænis hunc tu compesce catenis.'

These Letters are introduced to the knowlege of the public by a Preface written by Lord Grenville, in which we perceive many marks of a discriminating judgment, correct taste,

and a strong attachment to those immutable laws of morality and religion, without an attention to which the interests of society can never be long preserved. The noble editor has ventured in some particulars to differ from his author; on the subjects of Bolingbroke and Clarendon he thus expresses himself:

'Some early impressions had prepossessed Lord Chatham's mind with a much more favourable opinion of the political writings of Lord Bolingbroke, than he might himself have retained on a more impartial reconsideration. To a reader of the present day, the "Remarks on the History of England" would probably appear but ill entitled to the praises which are in these letters so liberally bestowed upon them. For himself, at least, the editor may be allowed to say, that their style is, in his judgment, declamatory, diffuse, and involved: deficient both in elegance and in precision, and little calculated to satisfy a taste formed, as Lord Chatham's was, on the purest models of classic simplicity. Their matter he thinks more substantially defective: the observations which they contain, display no depth of thought, or extent of knowledge; their reasoning is, for the most part, trite and superficial; while on the accuracy with which the facts themselves are represented no reliance can safely be placed. The principles and character of their author Lord Chatham himself condemns, with just reprobation. And when, in addition to this general censure, he admits, that in these writings the truth of history is occasionally warped, and its application distorted for party purposes, what farther notice can be wanted of the caution with which such a book must always be regarded?

'Lord Chatham appears to have recommended to his nephew, at the same time, the study of a very different work, the history of Clarendon: but he speaks with some distrust of the integrity of that valuable writer. When a statesman traces, for the instruction of posterity, the living images of the men and manners of his time; the passions by which he has himself been agitated; and the revolutions in which his own life and fortunes were involved, the picture will doubtless retain a strong impression of the mind, the character, and the opinions of its author. But there will always be a wide interval between the bias of sincere conviction and the dishonesty of intentional misrepresentation.

'Clarendon was unquestionably a lover of truth, and a sincere friend to the free constitution of his country. He defended that constitution in parliament, with zeal and energy, against * the encroachments of prerogative, and concurred in the establishment of new securities necessary for its protection. He did indeed, when these had been obtained, oppose with equal determination those continually increasing demands of parliament, which appeared to him to threaten the existence of the monarchy itself: desirous, if possible, to conciliate the maintenance of public liberty with the preservation of do-

'* See particularly the accounts, in Rushworth and Whitelock, of Clarendon's parliamentary conduct in 1640 and 1641; and of that of Falkland and Colpepper, with whom he acted.'

mestic peace, and to turn aside from his country all the evils, to which those demands immediately and manifestly tended *.

'The wish was honourable and virtuous, but it was already become impracticable. The purposes of irreconcileable ambition, entertained by both the contending parties, were utterly inconsistent with the re-establishment of mutual confidence. The parliamentary leaders openly grasped at the exclusive possession of all civil and all military authority: and on the other hand, the perfidy with which the king had violated his past engagements still rankled in the hearts of his people, whose just suspicions of his sincerity were continually renewed by the unsteadiness of his conduct, even in the very moments of fresh concession: while, amongst a large proportion of the community, every circumstance of civil injury or oppression was inflamed and aggravated by the utmost violence of religious animosity.

'In this unhappy state the calamities of civil war could no longer be averted: but the miseries by which the contest was attended, and the military tyranny to which it so naturally led, justified all the fears of those who had from the beginning most dreaded that terrible extremity.

'At the restoration the same virtuous statesman protected the constitution against the blind or interested zeal of excessive loyalty; and, if Monk had the glory of restoring the monarchy of England, to Clarendon is ascribed the merit of re-establishing her laws and liberties. A service no less advantageous to the crown than honourable to himself; but which was numbered among the chief of those offences for which he was afterwards abandoned, sacrificed, and persecuted by his unfeeling, corrupt, and profligate master.

'These observations respecting one of the most upright characters of our history, are here delivered with freedom, though in some degree opposed to so high an authority. The habit of forming such opinions for ourselves, instead of receiving them from others, is not the least among the advantages of such a course of reading and reflection as Lord Chatham recommends.'

We cannot close our remarks without adding that the work has given us much gratification, and that we recommend it to the attention of others from a conviction of its beneficial tendency.

'* A general recapitulation of these demands may be found in the message sent by the two Houses to the King, on the 2d of June, 1642; a paper which is recited by Ludlow as explanatory of the real intentions of the parliament at that period, and as being "in effect the principal foundation of the ensuing war."

1 Ludlow, 30. ed. 1698.

S.R.

ART. IX. *Epitome of the History of Malta and Gozo.* By Charles Wilkinson. Crown 8vo. pp. 210. 6s. Boards. Miller. 1804.

IN the compilation of this volume, Mr. Wilkinson professes to have been actuated by a desire of gratifying the wishes of the public, who may fairly be supposed to be solicitous of information on the subject about which he treats. It is well known that Russia has cast many longing looks towards Malta, and that France is extremely reluctant to abandon the hope of re-possessing it; while our strenuous retention of it, notwithstanding the treaty of Amiens and the wrath of the *new* emperor, is an indisputable proof of the high importance which we attach to it both in a commercial and a military view. From our intelligent or scientific countrymen, who may either belong to the garrison of Malta, or who may have been induced to visit this spot in consequence of our complete possession of it, more recent and in some respects more satisfactory details may be expected *: but, till these are prepared, Curiosity must be contented to feed on such matter as this epitome serves up to her table. To say the truth, Mr. W. has not been a dull and lazy caterer. He has collected numerous particulars relative to the antient and modern history of Malta, including that of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, its antiquities and natural history, fertility, population, the customs, manners, and religious ceremonies of its inhabitants; and his work will be found both instructive and amusing, though it may not be altogether free from error.

The antient history of Malta is not attempted to be traced any higher than to the time of the Phæacians; when, we are informed, it bore the name of Hyperia, and was inhabited by a race of giants. Ciantar, in his large work intitled *Malta Illustrata*, (of which Mr. W. has made considerable use,) says that bones of an unusual size are often dug up in the island of Gozo; and mention is here made of the remains of an edifice of enormous stones, which some writers have assigned to the Phæacians: but, says the epitomizer, they are only the efforts of art or the sports of nature. What can be the meaning of this sage observation?

The modern name of the island, Mr. W. supposes, was given to it by the Greeks, who succeeded the Phœnicians in the possession of it, and 'who called it Melita, either on account of its excellent honey, or in honour of the nymph Melita, daughter of Doris and Nerea:' but, in the last volume of the

* Our readers have already been presented with some of these accounts, in Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. pp. 78. &c. and 129.

Archæologia,

Archæologia, which we have just received, we observe a paper by Mr. Stephen Weston, giving an explanation of an unpublished Phœnician coin, whence it appears that the name of Malta was assigned to this island by Phœnician colonists, who migrated thither as to a place of refuge; מלט, from which is derived *Melita*, signifying *refugium*.

Descending to the period of the Romans, their possession of this island is duly noticed; with the statement that 'about the year 56, St. Paul was shipwrecked on the rocks which form the entrance of what is now called the Port of St. Paul.' From the hasty adoption of this vulgar opinion, it is evident that Mr. W. has never perused a Dissertation by the learned Mr. Bryant on this subject, published many years ago in his "Observations and Inquiries relating to various parts of ancient History;" of which an account will be found in M. R. vol. xxxvii. p. 349. Melita Illyrica, and not *Melita Africana*, was the island on which the Apostle was shipwrecked. The latter island lay out of Paul's track; it does not harbour serpents; nor, in the time of the Romans, could its inhabitants be represented as barbarians.

The history of the Order, with the mode of electing the Knights and the Grand Master, occupies several pages: but, as this order may now probably be considered as extinct, we shall not enter into any of these particulars. Since, however, the horrid practice of Duelling arose from chivalric institutions, it may not be amiss to lay before the reader the means adopted by the Order of Malta, for the purpose of checking though not of curing that evil:

'As the Order was founded on the principles of chivalry, they have ever found it too inconsistent with those principles to abolish duelling; but had laid it under such restrictions, as greatly to lessen its danger, which were curious enough. The parties were obliged to decide their quarrel in one particular street; and if they presumed to fight any where else, they were liable to the rigour of the law. But, what was not less singular, but much more in their favour, they were obliged, under the most severe penalties, to put up their swords when ordered by a woman, a priest, or a knight. Under these limitations, in a great city, one would imagine it almost impossible that a duel could ever end in blood: however, this was not the case. A cross was painted opposite to the spot where a knight had been killed, in commemoration of his fall; of which there are several. In the year 1770, two knights had a dispute at a billiard table; one of them, after a great deal of abusive language, added a blow; but, to the astonishment of all Malta (in whose annals there is not a similar instance), after so great a provocation, he absolutely refused to fight his antagonist. The challenge was repeated, and he had time to reflect on the consequences; but still he refused to enter the lists. He was condemned to make the *amende honorable* in St. John's

Church for forty five days successively; then to be confined in a dungeon, without light, for five years; after which, he was to remain a prisoner in the castle for life. The unfortunate young man who received the blow was likewise in disgrace, as he had not had an opportunity of wiping it out in the blood of his adversary.'

The population of Malta and Gozo is said, in the body of the work, to amount to 90,000: but, in the notes, we are informed that, when the French took possession of those islands, it was calculated at *one million!* This cannot be a fact.

Malta is represented as enjoying great fertility of soil, and its climate as so very salubrious that many of the inhabitants live to a great age, even to 130 years, and preserve their teeth to the last.

We extract, for the amusement of our readers, the following account of Maltese Marriages:

'The fathers concluded the marriages, according to their own interests and convenience, without consulting the inclination of their children. When the contract was settled and the dowry stipulated, the young man sent to his intended a present of fish covered with garlands of ribands, and a gold ring in the mouth of that which was the most highly esteemed. They then settled the day of interview, which was to be in the presence of the parents and common friends, who were regaled with refreshments. A moment before the interview, the two mothers retired to prepare a composition of anise. aromatic plants, salt, and honey, with which they rubbed the lips of the bride, that her words might be sweet, sage, and prudent. She was then introduced to the bridegroom, who offered her a ring, on which were engraven two hands joined in token of fidelity, bracelets, necklace, and a gold chain; she presented in her turn a handkerchief edged with lace, and knots of ribands. On the wedding day, the most respectable of the bridegroom's relations placed on the head of the intended, a very fine white veil; she was dressed on that day in a velvet gown; others of the relations made holes in the gown, and put in little gold shells. They then went to church. Musicians and singers celebrated in couplets the praises of the happy pair: the musicians were preceded by three men, one of whom carried on his head a bason, full of fresh cheese-cakes, on the largest of which were placed two small figs; he wore a scarf, from which hung a round cake called Collora. The second carried a basket full of sugar plums, which one of the relations distributed to his acquaintance as he met them; in the middle was a handkerchief folded up in the form of a pyramid, and ornamented with an image of the Virgin and Child, and St. Joseph. The third carried burning incense. The happy couple marched the last, under a canopy of crimson damask in festoons, carried by the four principal persons, and the parents closed the suite. The ringing of bells announced the arrival of the wedding; the priest received a bason containing a cake, a handkerchief, and two bottles of wine: after the benediction, they left the church in the same order they came. The whole ceremony generally lasted four

four hours. A servant placed at one of the windows of the house threw on the heads of the new-married couple, on their return, some handfulls of grain, and small money. The prejudice of the Maltese at that time was, that if the wife on her return first put her foot on the threshold of the door, she would rule; we may suppose from that, there were very few so polite as to let their wives go first. At the nuptial feast the wife eat in a separate apartment, or in a corner of the guest's room, surrounded by cloths to conceal her; after the repast she came and sat near her husband, and drank out of the same cup. In the casals they danced during the repast; every dancer threw a piece of money to the players, and each guest brought a fowl. Until the commencement of the present century, in the city the wedding balls were given after the Spanish fashion, and they danced with castagnettes. The young bride passed the first eight days in her father's house; after that she was pompously received by her husband, to whom the parents gave a ball and supper. The Maltese never married in the month of May: they had so little confidence in any work they undertook during the course of this month, that they would not even order a new coat. This superstition recalls to us the division which the Romans made of the year into lucky and unlucky days: it is thus we find, in the ancient Maltese manners, a great number of customs of different people of antiquity: it is necessary to retrace them, to give some explanation of the ceremonies which the mixture and application of pagan and Christian rites, have rendered singular and curious. Fish were regarded by the Syrians as household gods: these deities, by presenting themselves the wedding ring to the young betrothed, seem to call her by this signal into the house they protected. The Greeks wished that on her entrance her words should be agreeable to her husband; on this account they addressed their prayers to the god of eloquence.—Led afterwards to the altar of Hymen, the Romans offered her, in the garlands and knots of flowers, the emblem of the duties and pleasures of wedlock. The Hebrews wished that her modesty might always distinguish her, and covered her head with a veil. Her husband was obliged to give her two rings, one of gold, and the other of iron; which custom has descended to us in the rings which open and shut, and on which are engraven names or mottos. The Greeks accompanied her to the temple with the most lively demonstrations of joy; she marched surrounded by dancers and singers; they held over the heads of her and her husband a crown of flowers; the first fruits of the year were laid at the feet of the statues of the gods; cakes were consecrated to the lares; and corn, nuts, and almonds were thrown about in token of abundance of prosperity.'

In the concluding chapter, some general observations on Malta are confusedly thrown together: nevertheless, as they contain the result of the author's inquiries and examination, we shall make some extracts from them:

'The Maltese architecture is much admired for these two qualities—an exquisite taste in the forms of the masses, and a noble simplicity in the lesser parts. Almost every year vessels arrived at Malta with

with the plague on board, but the precautions were so great that it never spread through the island.—When the plan of the fort Cottonêre was shewn to Lewis XIV. he said, "It is a very fine work, but to be useful, it ought to be here."—It is astonishing to see the grandeur, fine architecture, decorations, marbles, and paintings of the churches in the Maltese villages. In no part of Europe are the country churches so sumptuous. If all the lands in Malta were sown, the produce would be sufficient for the maintenance of its inhabitants; but as the cultivation of cotton is more lucrative, they prefer it to corn, which is imported from Sicily and Barbary: and the magazines in the castle of St. Elmo were generally provisioned for three years. The cotton plants are sometimes left in the ground for three or four years, and staked every spring, as raspberry plants are in England. This method saves the trouble and expence of sowing and cultivating it annually. In fruitful soils, every square piece of ground, containing 420 geometrical yards, produces 500 pounds of cotton.—Vegetables are very fine, and the fruits delicate. The oranges are well known. Flowers have a finer scent than any elsewhere, particularly the roses, so much esteemed by the Romans. Cicero reproaches Verres for being carried, like the kings of Bythinia, in a litter, on cushions of Maltese roses. The honey has a delicious flavour, and the ancients compared it to that of mount Hybla; Cicero says it is superior to that of any other country; and Verres carried off 400 jars (amphoræ) of it.—They reckon in the island above 80 fountains of fine water, which throw up such quantities, that in winter the greatest part runs into the sea.—Beef, veal, pork, and lamb are excellent, and game very common. The cranes of Malta made one of the luxurious dishes of the votaries of Lucullus and Apicius. The sheep are particularly productive; they have sometimes four, and commonly three lambs every year. There are a great many birds of passage, and falcons, which the Order used to send as presents to the courts of Europe. An animal peculiar to the island, is the small dog with long silken hair, which Buffon calls Bichon; and says it is a double mixture, proceeding from the little Spanish dog and the barbet. Linnæus mentions, that to impede its growth, its back bone should be rubbed with spirits of wine mixed with sour oil, and very little food given to it. Aristotle says, that, for their size, they are of the most perfect proportions. Timon paints to us the Sybarites going to the bath, followed by little Maltese dogs; but they have very much degenerated within these few years.—The terra Melitensis is a bole, very compact and heavy; it is esteemed as a cordial and sudorific, and is similar to the earth of Lemnos, so much boasted of in medicine. The calcareous earth is supposed to have a great affinity with the kaolin, to which china owes all its solidity. Prince Lambertini in Rome has made some experiments with this earth, relative to the composition of china, and he found it had the same properties as the kaolin.'—

'To a traveller who runs through Sicily, where there are neither roads nor inns, and who must be a pensioner on the bounty of the monks, who I acknowledge (as a tribute of gratitude) are most hospitably inclined towards our bodies, but our poor souls they consider

sider as doomed to eternal perdition,—the difference on landing in Malta is wonderfully striking. In Sicily you may travel a whole day without meeting a human being, and every object wears the marks of poverty and desolation; but in Malta all is life, animation, and activity; and all the luxuries of mental and animal gratification are spread out before you. The Maltese speronara's are long, narrow, flat 6 oared boats, made entirely for speed: and will bear almost any sea in the Mediterranean. A speronara often brings over from Sicily four bullocks, a distance of at least 80 miles, and the channel is reckoned very dangerous; the prow is particularly sharp, and has an eye painted on each side; some of them have a fixed awning, under which two persons may sleep very comfortably. In the summer of 1796 we hired two to convey us to Naples, for ten louis each. When the wind will not allow of their using the sail, they row; but they do not pull their oars as we do, but push them always fronting the prow of the boat, and very seldom sit down. In calms they sing hymns, and invoke the Virgin for a prosperous gale; but alas! during our passage she was deaf to their prayers (probably on account of two heretics being on board,) for we were fourteen days making the passage; and night and day did these hardy sailors incessantly row.—The inhabitants of Gozo are said to be more industrious than those of Malta, as they are more secluded from the world and have fewer inducements to idleness. Their coverlits and blankets are much esteemed, and their silk stockings remarkably fine; some, they pretend, have been sold for ten sequins a pair. The red kind of oranges are produced from the common orange bud, engrafted on the pomegranate stock. The sugar cane is cultivated with success in Gozo, though not in any considerable quantity.'

Hence it appears that Mr. W. is not merely an epitomizer, but that he has himself visited Malta in the year 1796. Since that period, however, what changes has the island experienced!

A list of errata is subjoined, but it does not include all which the reader will find. In more than one place, the word *miasmæ* occurs for *miasmata*.

A map of Malta and Gozo faces the title of this neat little volume.

Mo.y.

ART. X. *The Opportunity;* or Reasons for an Immediate Alliance with St. Domingo. By the Author of "the Crisis of the Sugar Colonies." 8vo. pp. 156. 5s. sewed. Hatchard. 1804.

THE same clear and penetrating mind which evinced itself in the "Crisis," &c. (see M. R. Vol. xl. N. S. p. 73) is displayed, with undiminished lustre, on the present occasion; and the sound good sense which this pamphlet contains will doubtless recommend it to the serious consideration of Government. The author, in addressing himself to the Prime

Minister, reminds him of those doctrines, advanced in "the Crisis," which events have elucidated; and calls on him to improve an opportunity of securing the good and of averting the evil, to which the new order of things in the West Indies promises to give birth. Amid the singular changes which "fill the *modern* cup of alteration," that which has taken place in the condition of the Negroes in the West Indies is not the least considerable; and it may lead to consequences of which short-sighted politicians are not aware. A colony of African slaves fighting for liberty against their former masters, and establishing themselves as an independent state, on one of the largest and most prolific islands of the Antilles, in spite of the strenuous exertions of one of the most powerful of the European Governments, is a phænomenon of which, even in the present circumstances of our empire, we ought not to lose sight. The question, which this sensible writer proposes for discussion, is, 'What is the line of conduct which a British Minister ought, at the present juncture, to adopt towards the people of St. Domingo?' and he offers it as his decided opinion that 'our Ministry ought, without delay, to acknowlege the liberty of the Negroes of St. Domingo, to enter into fœderal engagements with them as a sovereign and independent people; and not only to grant, but, if necessary, to volunteer a guarantee of their Independence against the Republic of France.'

To prove that this advice is not the fruit of rashness, but of sound judgment, is the object of the pamphlet before us; and the ingenious author invites the Minister to contemplate the question in the several lights in which it may be placed. He is fully persuaded that the line of conduct here recommended is absolutely essential to every plan of colonial policy, from which future security can be expected.

It was the opinion of this writer, and of other gentlemen well acquainted with the West Indies, that the Consul of France would be foiled in his views respecting St. Domingo; and that the contest would terminate in the establishment of the Sovereignty of the African race over that large and fertile island. Such has been the event. A new nation has, as it were, arisen out of the sea; and respecting this new people, we must adopt one of these four lines of conduct: 1. to interdict all commercial intercourse whatever between his Majesty's subjects and the people of St. Domingo; 2. to permit such intercourse, but without any conventional basis; 3. to enter into some commercial treaty or convention with the Negroe chiefs, not involving any relations closer than those of

general

general amity and trade; or, 4. to adopt the decisive measures which this author ventures to recommend.

The first of these plans not being capable of complete execution, and if attempted being likely to operate more to our injury than to our benefit, is briefly dismissed by the author.

On the second, he observes that 'without a compact we can have no permanent privilege or favour in the ports of that island.'

'We are now in a situation to become not only the most favoured nation at St. Domingo, but even perhaps to obtain from this new people a monopoly of their trade; for we who alone can defy the resentment of France, can alone venture to contract with them at this critical period any fœderal relations. Herein consists one material advantage of that opportunity, to which I invite your attention.'—

'A treaty of some kind, is the necessary medium of such an important acquisition; and if we are content with a mere tacit allowance of general trade, we shall be rivalled by other powers; and soon, in consequence of the advantages of neutral navigation now possessed by them, shall be undersold and virtually excluded from this valuable branch of commerce. We shall gratuitously relinquish in favour of America, Denmark, and Sweden a great, and perhaps hereafter an inestimable boon, which the circumstances of the present war, as some compensation for its evils, happily throw within our reach.

'North America bids fairest to be our great rival in the future trade of St. Domingo; but as the injured islanders have seen the American flag bringing supplies to their oppressors, during the deepest horrors of the late dreadful contest, they can at this moment have no predilection for the people of that country; while our present hostility to the Republic, and the assistance we have given in blockading the French armies in their ports, must dispose them very favourably towards ourselves.'—

'Extend your view, Sir, to that future complete restitution of the agriculture of this vast island, which is at least a possible, and in my poor judgment, no improbable, or distant event. Reflect that upon such a restitution, we might import from St. Domingo, alone, far more in bulk and value of the rich tropical productions than all the other islands in the West Indies now collectively afford, and have a million or more of new transatlantic customers to lay out in our manufactures nearly the whole value of their produce; and then ask yourself whether such prospects as these, with such present benefits in advance, ought to be wantonly or for slight reasons renounced? Reject them at this moment, and they will certainly be lost for ever.'

The third plan is condemned as an half and inefficient measure; and the superior policy of the fourth is fully explained:

'A treaty or an intercourse merely commercial, would be so far from producing these important consequences, that our disposition to form such relations, and to stop short at that point might furnish arguments

arguments against us to the advocates of the Republic. Such a half measure under present circumstances, might speciously, nay, it might truly, be represented, rather as a proof of our incurable hostility to the freedom of the African race in the Antilles, than any symptom of a contrary disposition. That we advanced so far, might be reasonably acribed to commercial cupidity; that we offered no closer relations, could only be accounted for by what may be too fairly imputed to us, a bigoted antipathy to the new order of things in St. Domingo.'

The writer deprecates the return of this island under the dominion of France, and urges the Minister to take prompt and effectual measures for preventing it:

'We must not again suffer fifty or sixty thousand French troops to be transported to the West Indies; for we cannot rely that the folly and bigotry of the present, or any future French government, will again deliver us from the jeopardy of such an experiment. Had not the present war arrived in time to stop the pretended Louisiana expedition, we might have found that even the proud and inexorable Consul, when on the point of a new quarrel with this country, could have sacrificed his thirst for African blood, to his hatred of England; and found better employment for his recruited army, than hunting down with blood hounds their human game among the Mornes of St. Domingo.'

Reasoning on the nature of the case, the author thus attempts to justify the treaty which he urges us to make with the new sovereign of St. Domingo, who has restored to it the antient name of *Hayti*:

'France, by her own act,—whether intentionally or through the unforeseen effect of her domestic revolutions, is immaterial,—has created a new political power in the Antilles; a power dangerous perhaps in itself, but which in her hands would inevitably be destructive, to the security of its colonial neighbours. She has therefore imposed upon us a necessity of treating this new power as independent; and of engaging it, if we can, in such connections, as may exclude her influence or authority over it in future.'—

'That St. Domingo, whatever course we take, will one day be mistress of the Western Archipelago, is indeed highly probable; and that the shocking slavery of our colonies cannot much longer be maintained, is sufficiently certain; but by a just and rational policy, we might be enabled to look forward to the progress not only of African freedom, but of African sovereignty, in the West Indies, with satisfaction rather than dismay.'

The author thus concludes his reasoning and advice:

'The grand consideration of all is the highly probable, and most pernicious alternative to this alliance, a reconciliation between the new people and France. That they may not speedily become your formidable enemies, you must make them your obliged allies. You must guarantee their independence against the Republic, that they

they may not, to the ruin of your colonies, fall in their enfranchised state, and with their new-born energies, under her dominion, or her influence. Of such a reconciliation there is danger perhaps even at the present moment; but upon the conclusion of the war, at latest, such an event will almost infallibly ensue, unless precluded by the wise measure which I advise you now to adopt. Supposing the Republic even to be rash enough to recur to her counter revolutionary efforts, the folly would only retard, not ultimately prevent, a coalition fatal to our colonies, would subject them to new intermediate perils, and leave them exposed in the sequel, to dangers not less imminent than those with which they are at present menaced, without leaving a British minister at liberty to employ those means of prevention, which may now be unobjectionably used.

'The evils therefore which exist, and those which are likely to arise, the dangers of the war, and those to which peace will give birth, admit but of one remedy; are to be prevented or lessened by one only expedient. If you would wield the sword without new disadvantages, if you would sheath it without peril to our colonies, and if you would diminish the difficulties which oppose the restitution of peace, you must embrace without delay, the present opportunity; you must adopt the measure I propose. A wall of perpetual separation between France and St. Domingo must necessarily be built; and therefore the liberty and independency of the new people must be acknowledged, and must be placed under British protection. By that wise use of the present opportunity, and by that mean alone, the great revolution which has taken place in the West Indies, an event pregnant perhaps with grander, and more lasting effects, than any of the late revolutions of Europe, may be rendered wholly innoxious, nay, largely beneficial to this country; and pernicious only to that unprincipled power, which first rashly made, and then wickedly tried to reverse it.'

Regarding the present as intimately connected with the author's former pamphlet, and as discussing a subject of much greater magnitude and importance than the public at large seem to be aware, we have been induced to allot to it a larger space than we usually assign to publications of this size; and we make no doubt that the extracts given in this article will amply justify our conduct. We must add, however, that through the whole of this argument the writer presumes on the disposition of the Blacks of St. Domingo to enter into an amicable treaty with the British Government; while the recent information of the newspapers, if such may be credited, assures us that overtures of this nature have been already made, but that this sable colony, flushed with its victory over the French troops, cherishes the most extravagant ideas of its own consequence, and insists on terms totally incompatible with an amicable arrangement with Great Britain: yet it may be objected by this author that we have only endeavoured to temporize

rize with them, and have not adopted his broad plan of conduct. It may be so: but if the demands of the inhabitants of Hayti, or of Dessalines their chief, be such as the public papers state, these people are not yet in a temper of mind to conclude a treaty to our advantage. Still the thoughts here suggested should be kept in view; and no opportunity ought to be lost, to improve to our security and to profit by that black empire in the West, which at present lowers with so terrific an aspect over our possessions in that region of the globe.

In conclusion, the author warmly espouses the cause of the Negroes; reprobating, in the most pointed terms, that greatest opprobrium of the commercial Christian world, the Slave-Trade. Being a firm believer in the moral Government of God, he does not hesitate to afford us his view of the subject in connection with this idea:

'Yes, Sir, however it may revolt the prejudices of many who regard the raising our eyes beyond second causes, as no part of political wisdom, I will freely confess, that I can hope no good result from the measure here recommended, or from any other precautions of national prudence, while we continue to defy the justice of Omnipotence, by the horrible iniquities of the Slave Trade.

'I know the unequalled miseries inflicted upon myriads of the children of Adam, by that commerce; I know the horrors of the system which it feeds and perpetuates; I believe, that there is a righteous governor of the earth; and therefore I dare not hope well of the fortunes of my country, while she stands with an impious obduracy, between the mercy of God, and the deliverance of Africa.

'Nor are there symptoms wanting, which appear to develope a providential plan, for the relief of that much injured race, and the punishment of their oppressors.

'In the wonderful events and coincidences which have planted, fostered, and defended, the liberty of St. Domingo, I seem to see that hand by which the fates of men and nations are directed. I seem to see it in that strange train of public evils, which, since the first blaze of light revealed the full guilt of the Slave Trade, and since we rejected the loud call for reformation, have chastised our national obduracy. I seem to see it, in the dark clouds which now menace the domestic security, the idolized wealth, the happiness, and even the liberty and independency, of my country.'

Though we hope that the author's imagination paints a darker cloud as hanging over Great Britain than really exists, we are not insensible to the intimate connection which subsists between national virtue and national prosperity, nor to the horrible judgment in which mighty empires have been involved by their own iniquities. **Mo-y.**

ART.

ART. XI. *Medicina Nautica;* an Essay on the Diseases of Seamen: comprehending the History of Health in the Channel for the Years 1799, 1800, and 1801. Vol. III. By Thomas Trotter, M. D.; late Physician to his Majesty's Fleet, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 500. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

WE have more than once had occasion to notice the very commendable zeal and industry for which the author of this volume has been distinguished, in the useful and honorable situations which he has filled in the British Fleet *. The present publication is the last which he means to compose on nautical medicine: but, in a future edition, it is his intention to incorporate with his work any observations which may be transmitted to him relative to the subject of it. The first part of this volume gives, like its predecessors, a history of the health of the fleet; and the remainder is composed of observations, by himself or correspondents, on various topics connected with naval discipline or diseases.

Dr. Trotter merits every portion of credit for his persevering exertions to increase the comforts, and improve the accommodations, of our brave seamen; and in some important particulars he has been able to effect very salutary changes, more especially in the ventilation of ships, the separation of the diseased, and the supply of vegetable and fresh animal food. Little can be done by medical men, unless commanding officers are disposed to co-operate with and sanction their endeavours; and we are happy to find, that the present work abounds with instances of the great attention which officers are disposed to give to subjects connected with the health or comfort of their crew.—The *Markham sick-mess*, as planned by Capt. (now Adml.) Markham, described in the present volume, is an admirable example of how much may be done by a judicious commander in the furtherance of these important objects:

'The plan is to establish a mess for the sick, by the consent of each ship's company, which is to be done from the salted provisions, &c. which the sick are unable to use when indisposed, and confined to the sick-berth. There are numerous diseases, when it is either improper for the patient to use the ship's diet, or when, from want of appetite, he dislikes it. A large allowance, therefore, goes to his mess-mates, which, if not devoured by them, has often been sold on shore to disadvantage. Now, instead, of this superabundant allowance being given to a man whose appetite rejects it, or to his messmates who may sell it for bad purposes, Captain Markham of the Centaur has long been in the habit of directing the purser to keep a

* See M. R. N. S. Vols. xxiii. and xxxii.

book of credit for all such provisions, from a list daily furnished by the surgeon, which credit goes to the use of the sick, and is converted into a fund for supplying live stock, whether sheep or poultry, porter, vegetables, fruit, &c. when the ship goes to sea; from this also new bread is daily baked for the use of the whole.'—'The fund of a mess, well supported in most ships, would even afford to keep a cow for the use of the sick, which would certainly be the first and greatest comfort that could be bestowed.'

It must give every one great satisfaction to find that the gallant Tar, who passes a life of danger in the service of his country, can, when sick, be thus supplied in an easy, effectual, and cheap mode, with many of the comforts and indulgencies of private life; and we earnestly hope that so noble an instance of paternal care may not only receive the support of every humane and considerate officer in the service, but be enjoined by the higher powers. The author takes much pains to enforce, wherever he can, the attentions to proper ventilation which he has so often strenuously recommended, as the best means of preventing or removing fevers: but he never can do this, without at the same time throwing out very harsh observations against the use of mineral acid vapours, as destroyers of infection. This seems to be a favourite and lasting ground of invective with Dr. Trotter; who on the subject of contagion seems to have acquired an extraordinary degree of irritability, which is, on every occasion, anxious to shew itself.—The question on the use of these vapours is not, however, in our opinion, susceptible of being determined from the evidence which is here given; and we doubt much whether any new practice could ever receive a fair and candid examination, with the unfavourable predispositions which the author and many of his correspondents in this particular case seem to entertain.

We have not always approved Dr. T.'s reasoning on medical or chemical subjects; and we conceive that prejudice alone can make him see any force in the argument, which he adduces as so decisive against the use of acid vapours, viz. that it is necessary to know the precise nature of contagion, before we can attempt to neutralize or destroy it.—Dr. Trotter, we presume, will hardly be inclined to admit the application of this argument in his own practice, where (unless his speculations are more fortunate than they appear to us in every case to have been) he must occasionally prescribe for and perhaps sometimes cure diseases, the nature of which he has not been precisely able to demonstrate.

The chapters on Typhus and Contagion are principally composed of the histories of fevers which appeared in the Fleet,

Fleet, transmitted to the author by Navy Surgeons. Many of them discover marks of observation and experience, though the general results do not add much to our knowlege of the subject. Documents of this kind may indeed be prolonged to an indefinite extent, without bearing with them a proportional advantage.—A very fair opportunity presented itself, in the treatment of Fevers in Seamen, for trying the effects of the cold affusion recommended by Dr. Currie. This, as well as cold ablution, we are informed, was sometimes employed: but we have not in most of the cases a sufficient number of particulars, to judge of the degree of benefit received from those practices.

A short chapter gives an account of the progress of vaccination; and a subsequent section contains observations on Pneumonia, Catarrh, and Ophthalmia.—The consideration of Phthisis Pulmonalis follows; a disease which, as far as the author's experience proves, is most effectually to be prevented, or cured, by invigorating means.—A very good chapter is allotted to spasmodic and nervous affections, which are described as frequently shewing themselves in the stoutest and bravest seamen, accustomed by education and habit to adventure, and familiar with danger in every shape:

'An inaptitude to muscular action, or some pain in exerting it; an irksomeness or dislike to attend to business or the common affairs of life; a selfish desire of engrossing the sympathy and attention of others to the narrative of their own sufferings; with fickleness and unsteadiness of temper, even to irascibility; and accompanied more or less with dyspeptic symptoms; are the leading characteristics of nervous disorders, to be in general referred to debility, increased sensibility, or torpor of the alimentary canal.'

These symptoms the author has seen varied in numerous shapes; and he has frequently observed, at one time, several well marked cases of hysteria. He considers the monotonous life of a sailor as particularly disposing him to such complaints; and in general he concludes that any causes which tend to debilitate the system, particularly the stomach and bowels, have a similar effect. Tonic medicines, but more especially change of scene, and gentle exercise on shore, are the best remedies for these disorders.—Nostalgia is not infrequent, as may be supposed from the severe circumstances under which sailors are often taken on board ships of war.

The efficacy of vegetable acids in the cure of scurvy is now fully ascertained, and government affords a considerable supply for the use of the Navy. The author, however, deems it highly improper that there should be a regular daily allowance of lemon juice to sailors, whether they have any symptoms of

scurvy or not: he is still of opinion that scurvy arises from a defect of oxygen in the system, and that the vegetable acids operate in curing it by supplying the want of this principle: but this conjecture is by no means satisfactorily proved. Much may be likewise done, in effecting a cure, by fresh animal food, as well as vegetable; and many of the substances, which afford oxygen in the largest quantity, are found insufficient for curing the disease; as, for example, the mineral acids. Something, it appears, must be attributed to the radical as well as to the acidifying principle.

The last chapter treats on the subject of the malignant ulcer, which so often appears in sailors from very trivial accidents, as slight cuts or scratches; and which so much resembles that which sometimes shews itself in hospitals. Dr. Trotter considers it as depending very materially on the use of spirits, to which sailors are so much accustomed, and on the want of pure air. He is not able to recommend any effectual mode of treatment, but is disposed to agree with Dr. Mitchell in the idea of its being of an acid nature, and therefore capable of being removed by alkalis, such as the carbonate of potash. The supposed production of this disease does not seem reconcileable to that tendency to scurvy, which foul air and irregularities have been, in similar circumstances, calculated to excite.

Having thus made a few observations on some of the more important parts of this work, it would be injustice to the author to take leave of it, without bearing testimony also to his earnest endeavours to improve the situation of Navy Surgeons and Mates; whose encouragement is not yet sufficient for the nature of the important services which it is their duty to perform. Indeed we have pleasure in admitting, that Dr. Trotter appears to be animated with a most ardent zeal for the service of his country; and in retiring from his public duties, he has the prospect of enjoying the approbation of all those who are acquainted with his active exertions in the Navy. It is impossible for us to correctly appreciate the various obstacles and discouragements which the Doctor has experienced, in the course of his attempts at reform: but, howmuchsoever he may have been chagrined by them, we hope that he will reflect on the impossibility of avoiding this fate in such a career, and that he will have his ample reward in the testimony of an approving conscience.

Yell.

ART.

ART. XII. *Elements of Galvanism, in Theory and Practice;* with a comprehensive View of its History, from the first Experiments of Galvani to the present Time. Containing also, Practical Directions for constructing the Galvanic Apparatus, and plain systematic Instructions for performing all the various Experiments. Illustrated with a great Number of Copper-plates. By C. H. Wilkinson, Lecturer on Galvanism in Soho-square, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. with Plates. 1l. 1s. Boards. Murray. 1804.

SINCE the period at which Galvani first discovered the effects of metallic influence, in producing muscular contractions in dead animals, an immense number of curious and interesting facts on the same subject have been brought forwards; and a new science thus seems to have sprung up within a few years, possessing a considerable variety and extent, and promising to reward the labours of the philosopher by inductions of high interest and importance. If our expectations have not yet been fully realized, we may still hope that time, and a fortunate concurrence of circumstances, will throw more light on the nature of Galvanism, and establish its utility in various obstinate diseases to which it has been supposed that it might be successfully directed.

The author of this production has performed an acceptable service to the public, by collecting and arranging the various facts and doctrines which have appeared in different quarters, on the subject of Galvanism, and thus affording a connected view of the progress and present state of this science. The analysis of every work and memoir, of any consequence, which relates to this influence, is given at considerable length: but though this amplitude of detail is not without its use to the student, it has nevertheless made the publication more than necessarily diffuse.

The first volume, and nearly one half of the second, are occupied with an account of the principal facts and reasonings relating to Galvanism, which were adduced both before and after the discovery of the Voltäic Pile. Some of the most singular are those mentioned by Aldini, the nephew of Galvani, on the mode in which this influence is capable of being excited. He found that the simple contact of the nerves with the muscles is sufficient to produce contractions, without the interposition of any metallic substance; and hence he concludes, with Galvani, that there is a peculiar fluid, inherent in the animal machine, which is capable of producing this phænomenon, independently of the influence of metals, or of any foreign cause. His experiments were made by bringing the denuded sciatic nerves into contact with the muscles of the thigh, deprived of their integuments; when contractions,

similar to such as occurred in the customary Galvanic experiments, were immediately produced. By the influence of warm blooded animals, he was also able to excite convulsions in the cold. For this purpose, a finger of the operator, moistened in salt and water, was thrust into one of the ears of an ox recently killed; the nerve of a prepared frog, held in the other hand, was then made to approach the tongue of the ox; and, at the instant of contact, convulsions were excited. Contrary to the observations of most other experimentalists, Aldini found that the heart was not affected by Galvanism.

The experiments of Galvani first drew the attention of scientific men to the existence of a till then unknown influence, capable of being generated in different ways. It had ceased, however, to produce any considerable interest, when the discovery made by Volta, of a mode of concentrating Galvanic influence, by a series of metallic plates properly disposed, renewed a lively sensation in the philosophical world, and again excited to this subject a vigorous attention. Till the period at which this discovery was communicated, 'Physiologists had turned their attention entirely to the disturbance of the muscular fibre. In increasing the scale of their experiments, they confined themselves altogether to the augmentation of the animal substances employed. With this view batteries of frogs were arranged; but no idea seems to have been entertained of what was to be expected from an increase of the series of metals.' The mode of constructing the pile was from time to time considerably improved: but it was at length found, that the readiest and most effectual mode of exciting the Galvanic influence is by means of a wooden trough, with transverse grooves made in it, into which are inserted alternate plates of zinc and copper, cemented together in such a way as to prevent the cells from communicating. Into the cells is poured a solution of an acid, alkali, or neutral salt, but generally the former; and, on completing the communication between the extremities, a shock is felt or a spark seen.—When an acid is used, the oxyd, which is formed on the zinc, is dissolved; and thus the plates are kept clean, without the necessity of removal from the trough.

'Soon after the important communication of Volta on the self-charging power of his moto electric apparatus, the celebrated French chemists, Fourcroy, Vauquelin, and Thenard, supposing *à priori* that the effects would be in proportion to the metallic surfaces exposed, constructed plates of zinc and copper about nine or ten inches in diameter. The plates which had been previously employed, rarely exceeded the size of half-a-crown. As one of these large plates exposed

exposed a surface about 40 times * greater than that of the small plates, it was expected that the effects produced from ten such plates would have equalled the effects of four hundred of the smaller ones; but, to their great surprize, the above experimenters found that the sensations were the same, from an equal number of each; and that the extent of surface did not make any sensible difference. The power appeared to be regulated by the number of the plates, and not to be influenced by the surfaces exposed. They were equally surprized, when they found that a series of ten large plates, the effects of which on the human frame could with difficulty be perceived, possessed a power of burning finely drawn wires, and of deflagrating laminated metals, such as gold and silver leaves, equal to that of four hundred smaller plates, the sum of whose surfaces was equal to the surface of the larger ones. These curious facts led to an important deduction, that the influence of the galvanic fluid on the human frame, is in proportion to the series, or number of the plates employed; while its effects on metals are in the ratio of the surface exposed.'

We deem it unnecessary to go farther in our relation of the ample details given in this work, on the diversified mode in which Galvanic influence is excited, and on the different hypotheses which have been formed to account for it. We shall pass on, therefore, to the chapter which treats of the Influence of Galvanism on the Animal Functions.—It appears to the author, that respiration is the function in which this influence is most concerned; for he considers it as an important Galvanic operation, and the lungs themselves as affording a well-marked instance of a structure similar to that of the electric organs of the Torpedo. By the constant succession of shocks which is supposed to be communicated from the lungs, a stimulus is afforded to the 'organized and animated parts' of the body, by which heat is produced, and the other animal functions enabled to be properly exercised, without the necessity of having recourse to the irregular and unequal action of respiration; the unstable and uncertain exercise of which would place the system in a very dangerous predicament:

'On every exertion, and on every sudden alteration of temperature, the secretions would vary; and the body would be in a state of constant changes. Is this consonant with the uniformity, the admirable regularity which is observed? with the inherent power, the *vis medicatrix naturæ*, which acts equally against excessive heat or intense cold? If these changes should be too violent for her efforts to withstand, her preserving temperature can only be destroyed by the destruction of life also.'

'* A half crown measures about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch in diameter, and the diameters of the large plates being estimated at 10 inches, as the areas of circles are in proportion to each other as the squares of their diameters, the ratio will be as 100 are to $2\frac{1}{2}$, or as 1 is to 40.'

Mr. W. informs us that he considers his doctrines as something more than a "*rudis indigestaque moles.*" He offers them as the result of long and mature reflection; and he says that they received so little opposition, when read before several of the London Medical Societies, that they are regarded by him as completely stamped with the approbation of the 'learned members.'—Without meaning to throw any kind of improper reflection on the societies to which the author alludes, we should be inclined to doubt whether the little opposition, which his doctrines received, could form an unequivocal proof of approbation; and even if it be so considered, we should not be disposed to concede so much weight as the author assigns to the opinions of the gentlemen who in general compose the attending part of such societies. They are mostly young men; and though they may be very earnest in the prosecution of their studies, they cannot in general be supposed to be yet extensively acquainted with physiology, or to have acquired any considerable portion of scientific authority.

When a doctrine is offered with such pretensions as are here advanced, we naturally expect a luminous and well digested account of a variety of circumstances which support or confirm it. We are therefore surprized to find a remarkable paucity of evidence in its favour, and must regard it, at present, as little more than a crude speculation. The author relies much on a supposed similarity between the structure of the lungs, and that of the electric organs of the torpedo; though he admits that, in the latter, 'an external circuit is required,' while in the former 'the electric changes of the pulmonary cells are equalized by the pulsatory current of the blood.'

Mr. Wilkinson considers the present doctrines of respiration as insufficient for the purpose of accounting for the changes which the blood undergoes in the lungs, and for the production of animal heat. He examines, at some length, the statements of the English and French Philosophers on these subjects, particul rly those of Crawford and Lavoisier; and he concludes that their doctrines are not the results of accurate induction. He is of opinion that the absorption of oxygen is insufficient to account for the regular production of animal heat, and for the equable temperature which the body is capable of preserving under a very extensive thermometrical range. He justly observes that the different states of density in the air are inadequate to supply the quantity of oxygen necessary for affording the heat required to keep up an equable temperature in a high latitude: but he seems to found the necessity for the agency of electricity in this process, on the supposition that the insensible perspiration is the same, or nearly the same, in

all

all climates. It is undoubtedly requisite to be acquainted with the various degrees of exhalation which take place in different temperatures, before we can be prepared to say that the production of cold by evaporation is not the great means which nature employs in maintaining the animal temperature at one uniform standard. This seemed to be the medium by which, in the high temperatures of Fordyce's and Blagdon's experiments, the heat was preserved so near to its usual degree; and it is a very probable supposition that the greater quantity of heat, which is retained in low temperatures, owing to the diminished quantity of cuticular discharge, may afford the necessary supply to the system.—The constant changes which the body undergoes will in course continue in the Frigid, as well as in the Torrid zone: but the means of effecting them are different. We all know that, in the thermometrical range which takes place in our own climate, the states of the gaseous and fluid secretions vary much at different periods. Before the arguments are admitted, which the author derives from the undiminished temperature of blue Boys, in whom the circulation through the lungs is incomplete, and from the increased heat observed by Dr. Currie in some fevers, in which the force of the circulation is not augmented, it is absolutely necessary to be acquainted with the state of the cuticular discharge, which in both cases may have been materially diminished.

It appears difficult to Mr. Wilkinson to conceive that florid arterial blood can ever again acquire a carbonated tinge; and therefore he persuades himself that the colouring part of this blood never returns into the veins. He states also that the communication between arteries and veins is by the medium only of seriferous vessels; and thus that, on correct anatomical principles, red blood cannot pass from the arteries into the veins in a healthy subject.—We are at a loss to reconcile a doctrine of this kind to an acquaintance with the common and well established facts of physiology. The immediate communication, which the author doubts, is to be distinguished by the microscope, in some cold blooded animals; and various phænomena, some of them noticed by Mr. W., constitute ample proofs of the doctrine which he attempts to deny. When arteries terminate in cells, no anatomical proofs, he asserts, can be brought to manifest the return of the blood by the veins: but we cannot imagine by what other system of vessels the return can be effected. He moreover conceives it to be contrary to the simplicity of nature, that, when the portion of blood which is devoted to the purposes of nutrition is already in its perfect state, it should again be deteriorated, and

again

again be obliged to undergo a pulmonary change. Nature is, however, œconomical in her operations, and throughout many parts of the animal system displays a disposition to accomplish more effects than one by similar means; and it is surely rather a tribute to her wisdom, than a reflection on her operations, to discover that the power of producing certain effects can be repeatedly supplied by that continual revolution which is caused by the circulation. The phænomena of transfusion, of blood-letting, and in fact almost every one in which the circulation is concerned, decidedly prove that the author's view of the subject is unphilosophical and inaccurate.

In the first volume of this work, Mr. W. gives, from the authority of others, some cases in which Galvanism had been employed in diseases; and the last chapter of the second is occupied with the detail of his own experience in this important subject.

With regard to paralytic affections, when they do not arise from organic defect, or from pressure of extravasated fluid on the brain, Galvanism, we are informed, has often proved serviceable: but, in one case which is mentioned, the patient, after a partial recovery, remained stationary, though he always found his mind calmed and his spirits improved by the application of it.

In nervous deafness, the author has seen advantage produced by Galvanism: but he has had very little success with it in Amaurosis, or other complaints of the eyes.

The following observations on the effects of this treatment in spasmodic affections merit attention:

'In involuntary actions of the muscles, (says the author) I know of no remedy so efficacious as Galvanism. In a contracted state of the fingers, or hands, however violently the latter may be clenched, on the application of this principle for the space of a few minutes, it rarely fails to induce a relaxation. In cases of cramp, if of long continuance, and even of tetanus *, or locked jaw, it has afforded relief in a short space of time. In contractions of the joints, and in all cases of rigidity, it will be found a very advantageous stimulus, which will greatly contribute to the restoration of motion.

'In the stiffness of the joints, occasioned by the gout, it has come under my observation that the stimulus of galvanism, conjointly with the flesh-brush, has been attended by the happiest effects. It seems to give such a tone to the blood-vessels as to render the circulation more vigorous. In this state of the disease such an effect is very desirable.

'* A very intelligent gentleman, General Watson, informed me of a case of tetanus, which had resisted every other remedy, having been completely relieved by a quarter of an hour's application of this principle, to the convulsed muscles.'

'Perhaps

'Perhaps in no case are the advantages of Galvanism more sensibly experienced, than in indolent tumors, or scrophulous swellings, which have long remained stationary. By the influence of this principle, tumors of this kind have in a few days been brought either into a state of suppuration or resolution. Many swellings are of such a nature, that their removal by either of these means is desirable. I have frequently applied the Galvanic principle with the utmost success in inguinal tumors, which had resisted every other curative intention. The obtuse aching sensation, generally attendant on these indolent tumors, is very speedily removed. In scrophulous affections of the neck, it has been found very beneficial.'

In hypochondriasis, the author is inclined to employ Galvanism; and in the nervous head-aches of females, attended 'by a violent oppressive sensation over the eyes, together with Nausea, and an almost entire inability of motion,' he has carried the power of a dozen plates through the temples with benefit.

Mr. Wilkinson cannot yet speak from his own experience, on the effects of Galvanism in cases of suspended animation, but he is inclined to augur well of its employment:

'In such cases of suspended animation, whether from drowning, hanging, or exposure to noxious gases, the body should be divested of its cloathing, and placed in a warm bed, nearly approaching to the natural temperature. If it can be procured, air with an increased proportion of oxygen should be introduced into the lungs; and, at the same instant, very gentle Galvanic shocks should be sent through the body, in such a direction as to influence the heart. By combining this principle with the other usual means, the most advantageous effects may be expected.'

Thirteen well executed plates illustrate this publication, and it is judiciously furnished with an ample index. **Yell.**

ART. XIII. *A Tour from Downing to Alston-Moor.* By Thomas Pennant, Esq. 4to. pp. 189, Plates 27. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Harding.

ART. XIV. *A Tour from Alston-Moor to Harrowgate and Brimham Crags.* By Thomas Pennant, Esq. 4to. pp. 125, Plates 9. 18s. Boards. Scott. 1804.

THE line in Gray's Elegy,

"E'en in our ashes live their wonted fire,"

is generally regarded as containing a very bold hyperbole: but it may in some sense be applied to the posthumous works of men of genius; which may be considered as a kind of present from the tomb, and by which the author seems to protract his existence

existence beyond the term of his natural life, and to communicate delight to the world when he has ceased to derive any entertainment from it. These volumes, which owe their origin to the pen of that amusing antiquary, naturalist, and traveller, the late Mr. Pennant, have brought to our grateful recollection the pleasure which he has formerly afforded us; and it is some satisfaction to find that his "wonted fire" burned equally vivid to the last, and that these posthumous volumes will throw no shade on his fame.

Owing to some accidental circumstances, we have deferred our mention of the first of these tours much longer than we intended, when we announced its appearance in the account of a former work, Rev. vol. xxxvi. p. 357.: but, by the delay, we have been enabled to present to the reader the whole of Mr. Pennant's Northern journey, performed in 1773; which was undertaken (as he informs us) with a desire of obtaining health from exercise, and from a thirst after information respecting the almost latent curiosities of our island.

The route described in the first of these works includes

'The space from *Downing* to *Orford*; from thence to *Knowsley*, *Sefton*, *Ormskirk*, *Latham*, and (crossing the country) to *Blackburn*, *Whalley-abbey*, *Ribchester*, *Mitton*, *Waddington hall* and *Clithero*, most of them in the County of *Lancashire*. In that of *York* I visited *Salley abbey*, *Bolton-hall*, *Malham Coves*, *Settle*, *Giggleswick* and *Ingleton*. I then crossed the *Lune* to *Kirkby-Lonsdale*, and visited all the parts of *Westmoreland* and *Cumberland* omitted in my printed Tours of 1769 and 1772; and finally, I finished this MS. Volume at *Alston*, near the Borders of *Durham*.'

It is impossible for us to enumerate, even in the most concise way, the variety of curious information which is collected by Mr. Pennant in these pages: but, in conformity with our usual practice on these occasions, we shall select a few detached specimens, for the sake of doing justice to the diligence and learning of the traveller, and at the same time of communicating knowlege and entertainment to the reader.

The visit to Latham-Hall is enlivened by these notices and anecdotes;

'*Latham* is placed on a most barren spot, and commands a view as extensive as dull. The back-front was begun by *William* earl of *Derby*; the rest completed in a most magnificent manner by Sir *Thomas Bootle*. The house consists of a ground floor, principal, and attic; has a rustic basement, with a double flight of steps to the first story. The front extends a hundred and fifty-six feet, and has nine windows on each floor: the offices are joined to it, by a corridor supported by pillars of the Ionic order.

'The hall is nearly a square—40 feet by 42; its height 36; the saloon 39 by 24. On this floor are thirteen apartments.

'The

'The ancient *Latham*, the celebrated seat of nobility and hospitality, stood between the north-east offices of the present house and the kitchen garden. This place, with vast property, belonged to the *Lathams* till the year 1369, when, by the death of Sir *Thomas de Latham*, it fell to Sir *John Stanley*, knight of the garter, second brother of Sir *William Stanley* of *Hooton*, in right of *Isabel* daughter of Sir *Thomas*, who married into the fortunate house, and laid the foundation of its greatness.

'Notice has before been taken of the share his grandson, Sir *Thomas* first earl of *Derby*, had in the placing on the throne *Henry VII.* In his absence, during the preceding commotions, ballad authority tells me that the old house of *Latham* was ruined, and that, on his return, he rebuilt it with great magnificence.

"When place and weete and wisdom called
Home this Earle to rest,
He viewed his antient seate, and saw
The ruines of his nest:
And pull'd it downe, and from the ground
New-builded *Latham-hall*,
So spatious that it can receive
Two kings, their trains and all."

'The Bard appears to have a strong partiality to the place, by the following lines, after mentioning the visit the Earl was honoured with by his son-in law *Henry VII.* who was so struck with the place as to build a palace on the same model:

"At his home cominge pull'd downe *Richmond*,
Faire in men's estimacion,
And built it new in all respects,
Like *Latham hall* in fashion."

'The form of this house may in a great measure be collected from the state it was in immediately before the noted siege in the last century. In the centre was a lofty tower called the *Eagles:* it had two courts; for mention is made of a strong and high gateway before the first.—The whole was surrounded with a wall two yards thick flanked by nine towers, and this again guarded by a moat eight yards wide and two deep.

'Such was its situation in February 1644, when it was possessed by the heroic Countess; who, receiving a summons from Sir *Thomas Fairfax*, with an offer of most honourable terms, replied, "That she was there in a double trust—of faith to her husband, and allegiance to her Sovereign; and that she meant to preserve her honour and obedience, though in her own ruin." She was as good as her word; for, during the space of sixteen months, with the assistance of a set of gallant officers appointed and commanded by herself, she repelled every effort to reduce the place. Colonel *Edward Chisenhall* was one of the gallant officers who commanded under her. Hearing that the enemy boasted of their store of provision, he sallied out, and, as the expression was, "stole their dinner." With a fortitude beyond her sex, she endured all the miseries of a siege, and beheld, with as little emotion as *Charles XII.* a bomb fall through the room where she

she and her children were at dinner. At length she was relieved by the royal forces under Prince *Rupert* and her Lord, when she retired from the place, recommending, as Governor, Captain *Edward Rawsthorn*, who, with the spirit of his Mistress, endured another siege till the ruin of the royal cause; and, by the royal command, he yielded up the house to Colonel *Booth*, December 5, 1645. The reduction was thought of such importance that public thanks were, by order of Parliament, given by the Ministers of *London* in all the churches. The place was dismantled the following year: all the floors and wainscotting were sold for 54l. 7s. 10d. *Knowsley* was, by order of the ruling powers, repaired with the lead from hence.

'On the Restoration it was repossessed by the family; was repaired, and even inhabited the beginning of this century, when the *Eagle Tower* and some parts of the wooden house were standing. The house, and this part of the estate, were transferred to *John* lord *Ashburnham*, by his marriage in 1714 with *Henrietta* daughter of *William* ninth earl of *Derby*. Lord *Ashburnham* sold it to a *Furness*, who soon disposed of it to Sir *Thomas Bootle*. I have more than once heard a relation, which, if well founded, is a wonderful instance of the retribution of Providence, the instability of all human tenure, and the strange changes of fortune in families, which ought to instil a most humiliating lesson into the Great. Previous to the siege of *Latham*, one *Bootle* (said to have been ancestor to Sir *Thomas*) was porter to the Noble owner. He is said to have taken a voluntary oath of loyalty, but afterwards sided with the parliament. At the storming of *Bolton*, he had a Captain's command in the town; when surrounded by the royalists, and seeing his old master near him, he applied to his Lordship for quarter: the fellow perished in the rage of the assault. His descendants possess the most ancient property of the Peer, to whom he had sued in vain.

'Another singular anecdote is preserved, serving to shew the pride of high lineage, and the vanity of low. The late Earl of *Derby* had on sale a place near *Liverpool* called *Bootle*, which Sir *Thomas* was particularly desirous of, through the ambition of being thought to have been derived from some antient stock. The Earl refused to part with it to this new man, who with proper spirit sent his Lordship word, (*Latham* being then to be sold,) that if he would not let him be *Bootle* of *Bootle*, he was resolved to be *Bootle* of *Latham*.

'Possibly the family of the *Bootles* may have been, through envy, depreciated; for, when Sir *William Dugdale* made his visitation of *Lancashire*, in 1664, *Thomas Bootle* of *Melling* was summoned, with other Gentry of the county, and entered his pedigree. It appeared that they had *then* been settled there four generations, though a family *non arma gerens*, those they assumed being the property of *Ponsonby* earl of *Besborough*. This *Thomas* was either grandfather or great grandfather of Sir *Thomas Bootle*, knight.

'Before I quit *Latham* I must not forget the romance of *Oskytel*, the person to whom the *Stanleys* owe the cognizance of the Eagle and Child. A certain Sir *Thomas de Latham*, in a century uncertain, found himself, in a very advanced age, childless, and in possession of an antiquated lady. In hopes of posterity, he entered on an intrigue with

with a fair vassal in the neighbourhood, who, in consequence, bore to him a son. It was the wish of Sir *Thomas* to adopt the child, and to introduce him into the family. In order to do it unsuspected by the lady, he caused it to be placed well swaddled in an eagle's nest in *Terston-wood*, immediately before he had artfully drawn his wife on a walk that way. The cries of the infant were soon heard: it was relieved from its situation, pitied by the lady, who considered it as a heaven-sent gift in compassion to her sterility, took it home, and, ignorant of the deceit, educated it with all the fondness of a natural mother.'

Natural history is not overlooked; and a catalogue of curious plants is given, to invite the excursion of the botanist:

'*Cloud Berries* are found plentifully on the moors between *Malham* and *Settle*. They take their name from their lofty situation. I have seen the berries in the Highlands of *Scotland* served as a desert. The *Swedes* and *Norwegians* preserve great quantities in autumn to make tarts and other confections, and esteem them as excellent antiscorbutics. The *Laplanders* bruise and eat them in the milk of rein deer, and preserve them quite fresh till spring by burying them in the snow.'

To an account of Kendal, is subjoined a short biographical sketch of Dr. Shaw, the celebrated traveller, who was a native of that place.

At Wharton-Hall, the tourist made inquiries respecting Philip Duke of Wharton, whom Pope mentions as the "scorn and wonder of his days;" and he informs us that he discovered people now living, 'who well remembered this *British Clodio*, and who have been witness to the justice of the description of the profligate part of his character; of his affecting to hunt on Sundays, and shewing in all his actions an equal contempt of the laws of God and man.' Severe, therefore, as the lines of Pope may at first be thought, he appears from this account to have faithfully delineated the profligate original.

Mr. Pennant is not such an infatuated antiquary as to be unable to descry the defects and inconveniences of our antient edifices. He thus comments on Naworth-Castle:

'It is a large pile, square, and built about a court, with a square tower at each corner. In the south side is a gateway with the arms of the *Dacres*; over the door those of the *Howards*. On the north, it impends over the river *Irthing*, at a great height; the banks shagged with wood. The whole house is a true specimen of ancient inconvenience, of magnificence and littleness: the rooms numerous, accessible by sixteen stair-cases, with most frequent sudden ascents and descents into the bargain; besides a long narrow gallery. The great hall is twenty-five paces long, by nine and a half broad, of a good height; has a gallery at one end, adorned with four vast crests, carved in wood, viz. a griffin and dolphin with the scallops, an uni-

corn, and an ox with a coronet round his neck. In front is a figure, in wood, of an armed man; two others, perhaps vassals, in short jackets and caps, a pouch pendant behind, and the mutilated remains of *Priapus* to each; one has wooden shoes. These seem the *ludibrium aulæ* in those gross days.'

As the concluding paragraph of the first part of this tour offers an useful hint, as well as much historical matter, we did not hesitate in marking it for quotation:

'*Alston Moor*, a mine, and market-town, consists of a number of small houses covered with flags, built irregularly, and extending lengthways up the side of a hill. This manor had been at different times the property of the *Veteriponts*. In the reign of *Henry V.* of *John de Clifford*; in that of his successor, of *Thomas Whittow*, who granted it to *William Stapleton* and his wife. *Mary*, co heiress of that house, conveyed it to a second son of Sir *Richard Musgrave* of *Hartley castle*. It afterwards devolved to a *Hilton*, son of that Lady by a first husband. His descendants possessed it till the time of *James I.* when *Henry Hilton* of *Hilton*, Esq. sold it to *Francis Ratcliff* baron of *Dilston* near *Hexham* in *Northumberland*, in whose house it continued till the attainder of the unfortunate *James* Earl of *Derwentwater* in 1715. The estates of that Nobleman in this county are extremely rich in lead-ore. It appears by the Moor-master's books, as related by Dr. *Burn*, that in three years, viz. 1766, 1767, and 1768, the mines produced sixty-one thousand eight hundred and thirty bynges of ore, which at the valuation of each byng, in those years, at 2l. 15s. each, amounted to the vast sum of 170,032l. 10s. This, and the other estates of Lord *Derwentwater*, were, by Act of Parliament, in 1735, vested in *Greenwich hospital* *, and bring in a vast revenue to that magnificent and useful foundation. At the time of the forfeiture they were supposed to amount to about seven thousand pounds a year; yet, by the contrivance or connivance of the Commissioners of the Forfeited Estates, were sold for the sum of 1060l †. The villainy of the transaction was detected, in 1732, by the sagacity and pains of *Thomas* Lord *Gage*, then in the House of Commons, who was honoured by the thanks of the House for his services ‡. Two of the Members concerned as commissioners in this infamous affair, were expelled; and a third, who appeared to have been drawn into an irregularity only in the proceedings, received a reprimand from the Speaker in his place §. This ought to be an example to posterity, particularly to men in power, who may attempt, under specious pretences, the destruction of benefits intended for the public good, whether the foundation be recent or ancient; whether it be the alienation of Church Lands, or of those allotted for the support of the Poor. The securities are now good, the tenures firm. If they should be disposed of for money, every day may produce in-

'* Ruffhead's Statutes, vi. 317.'
'† Hist. and Proceedings of the House of Commons, vii. 154.'
'‡ Same, 240; and Lodge's Irish Peerage, iii. 300.'
'§ Hist. &c. vii. 240.'

stances

stances of the loss sustained by the laying it out improperly for selfish ends. The same may happen in an exchange for other lands. A little recollection will remind us of the sums endangered to the Poor, by the laying out of money on the temporary mortgages of tolls of turnpikes. It cannot be doubted, that when Parliament takes into consideration the movements of the lesser wheels of government and policy, it will not neglect an inspection into these breaches of trust, and cause full justice to be executed on those who may have dared to abuse the most sacred of deposits.'

The second of these volumes continues the tour from Alston-Moor to Stanhope—Wolsingham—Bishop Aukland—Raby-Castle—Bernard-Castle—Egleston-Abbey (Yorkshire)—Wycliff—Ravensworth-Castle—Catarrick Bridge—Burniston—Cathorp—Hackfall—Norton-Coniers—Ripon—Studley-Park—Fountain's Abbey—Borough-Bridge—Aldborough—Knaresborough—Harrowgate—Ripley—Brimham Crags.

As an instance of strange revolutions in the use of places, we may give the account of the Oven at Raby-Castle, which, with the Kitchen, remains a token of antient hospitality:

'The oven was of dimensions suited to the hospitality of the pile; higher than a tall person, for the tallest may stand upright in it, and I think its diameter must be fifteen feet. At present it is converted into a wine-cellar; the sides are divided into ten parts, and each holds a hogshead of wine in bottles.

'The kitchen is a magnificent and lofty square; has three chimnies, one for the grate, a second for stoves, the third, now stopped up, was for the great cauldron: the top is arched, and a small cupola lights it in the center; but on the sides are five windows, with a gallery passing all round before them, and four steps from each pointing down towards the kitchen, but ending at a great height above the floor, and seem neatly ornamented. From the floor is another staircase that conducts to the great hall, but the passage is now stopt—What hecatombs must have been carried that way!'

Egleston-bridge, to say nothing of its neighbouring cataracts, is intitled, by its construction, to the traveller's notice:

'The first of the wonders is *Winch-Bridge*, flung over the river from precipice to precipice, about two miles above *Middleton*, where the water falls in repeated cataracts. It is made of chains stretched from rock to rock, seventy feet in extent, over a chasm of sixty feet deep. The bridge is only two feet wide, with a hand rail on one side, and planked at the bottom. It is a common passage for strongheaded miners; but such is its tremendous motion, and such the awe of the dreadful gulph beneath, that few are the passengers: besides, I dare say, that the architect of this bridge never heard of that of *Chooka*, in the distant *Bootan*, flung across a river of the same name; stretched from buttress to buttress, founded on the rocks, and, in all respects, constructed with chains, and planked at bottom. Yet, in my *Hindoostan* II. tab. xiii. I can produce one not more wonderful than that

of the consentaneous thought of a *British* bridge-builder, at thousands of miles distance.'

Studley-Park is mentioned as extremely deserving of a visit, not because it exhibits the improvements of the modern landscape gardener, but because it is a specimen of the old formal style, of which little now remains.

A long narrative is annexed respecting the foundation of Fountain's Abbey; which, if it commenced in sanctity of manners, became at last, like other pious institutions of a superstitious age, the scene of irregularity and vice. The last Abbot is accused by Layton, in his Letter to Lord Cromwell, of keeping six whores; which Mr. Pennant charitably considers as an *exaggerated* charge: but it is severe enough, if only *half* of it be true.

With much good sense, Mr. Pennant resists the idea that Brimham Crags are druidical remains, and regards them rather as *lusus naturæ*, or the effect of chance.

The termination of this journey connects it with Mr. Pennant's Scots tour. The engravings, as usual, are taken from drawings executed by the author's skilful and favorite servant, Moses Griffith.

Mo.y.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JUNE, 1804.

ARTS.

Art. 15. *The New Vitruvius Britannicus;* consisting of Plans and Elevations of Modern Buildings, public and private, erected in Great Britain by the most celebrated Architects, engraved on 72 Plates, from original Drawings. By George Richardson, Architect. Folio. 5l. 15s. 6d. Boards. Taylor.

THE first seven Numbers of this publication were announced in our 33d Vol. p. 306. It is now completed, and has assumed a different title, corresponding with the author's intention that it should be viewed as a supplement to the *Vitruvius Britannicus*. We are gratified in the fulfilment of this design, and recommend the publication to all lovers and professors of the art, as worthy of their patronage and consultation. The engravings are numerous and well executed; and the requisite descriptions are given both in English and French.

For the reason before assigned, we feel ourselves unable to enter into any critical examination of these specimens of modern skill in architecture: but we shall endeavour to convey a general idea of the contents of this volume, by specifying the mansions which it delineates, and the names of the artists. They are as follow:

Bowden

Bowden Park, Wilts, the seat of B. Dickinson, Esq. James Wyatt.
Tusmore House, Oxon, — of W. M. Fermor, Esq. R. Mylne.
Pavilion, Brighton — of the P. of Wales, H. Holland.
Plans for Public Assembly Rooms at Glasgow, R. & J. Adam.
Sydney Lodge, Hants, — of Hon. Mrs. Yorke, Jn. Soane.
Gore Court, Kent, — of G. Harper, Esq. S. P. Cockerell.
Basildon House, Berks, — of Sir F. Sykes, Bart. J. Carr, of York.
Longford House, Salop, — of R. Lecke, Esq. J. Bonomi.
Broomfield Lodge, Clapham, — of late Hon. E. J. Eliot, J. T. Groves.
Putney Park, — of B. Thompson, Esq. W. Porden.
Trinity House, Tower Hill, London, S. Wyatt.
Seat of W. H. Pigou, Esq. at Windmill Hill, Sussex, W. Reveley.
Watton Wood Hall, Herts, seat of Sir T. Rumbold, T. Leverton.
Southgate Grove, Enfield, — of W. Gray, Esq. J. Nash.
Addington Lodge, near Croydon, — of J. Trecothick, Esq. R. Mylne.
Middlesex Sessions House, London, T. Rogers.
Stoke Park House, Wilts, seat of J. Smith, Esq. G. Steuart.
Eastwell Park House, Kent, — of G. F. Hatton, Esq. J. Bonomi.
Gosford House, N. Britain, — of the Earl of Wemyss, late Rob. Adam.
Thornes House, Yorkshire, — of J. Milnes, Esq. J. Carr, of York.
Denton Hall, ditto, — of Sir H. Ibbetson, Bart. Ditto.
Doddington Hall, Cheshire, — of Sir T. Broughton, Bart. S. Wyatt.
Claremont, Surrey, — of the E. of Tyrconnel, L. Brown and H. Holland.
Crow-nest House, Yorkshire, — of W. Walker, Esq. T. Bradley.
Courteen Hall, Northamptonshire, — of Sir W. Wake, Bart. S. Saxon.
Buckminster Park, Leicestershire, — of Sir W. Manners, Bart. Ditto.

We do not find any intimation that this work is to be farther prosecuted, though we apprehend that additional materials might abundantly be supplied, and by professional men whose names do not yet appear among these records.

G. 2.

POLITICAL.

Art. 16. *A Letter to the Rt. Hon. William Pitt,* on the late Arrangements in Administration. By Timothy Plain. 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1804.

This writer gives credit to the several great persons who, forgetting former differences, recently united to chase the late administration from the helm: which he represents as a spectacle highly gratifying to the public, and the expected beneficial effects of which have been frustrated by Mr. Pitt's eager acceptance of office. He charges the Minister with coming into power on the shoulders of others, with whom he co-operated in order to eject his former friends; and with thinking no more of them when that purpose was once secured: which object is described by the present writer as being the primary one in all the exertions of the great character whom he addresses. He censures him severely for engrossing to himself all the advantages arising from the expulsion of the late Minister, while that change was the effect of combined force:

'So far,' he says, 'have you lost sight of the *only* object which a patriotic mind could have formed, namely, a *general union* of talent and worth, that you have even agreed to come into office, under the express

stipulation of the *exclusion* of that man, to whom, in particular, the eyes of this country, and of the whole world, are at this moment directed, as the standard of talent and principle;—of that man, who *alone* is calculated, from the character for moderation which he bears, to secure to us the confidence of the powers on the Continent; and by his energy and talent, to restore peace and tranquillity to Europe!'

The introduction of the late administration is regarded as a contrivance of the present Premier, intended by him to be a mere temporary measure, under which certain persons were to be brought into play to sustain a part which he could not or did not chuse to perform himself; and which being fulfilled, they would be expected to retire, in order that the saviour of his country and the deliverer of Europe might resume his station. The appointment of Mr. Pitt, the author maintains, is considered by all Europe, as well as by the united kingdom, as declaratory of the intention of this country to persevere in the war system; and his administration is asserted to be less acceptable to the public than that of Mr. Addington. The author still, however, allows Mr. Pitt room for repentance:

'Think, Sir, what you are;—Think what you might have been!—Consider how high you might have stood in the eyes of this country, in the eyes of the world, as being at the head of an administration possessing the *unlimited confidence*, and comprising the WHOLE *talent* of the country:—Consider how *low* you now stand, even in the estimation of your own personal friends!—Reflect, ere it be too late.—Go to your sovereign—point out to him the impossibility of reconciling the public mind to any arrangement founded on the principle of *exclusion*—Shew him how repugnant such a sentiment is to the idea of unanimity—Tell him how contrary it is to the wishes of those whose constant care, whose most ardent wish, at this moment, is, the prosperity, honour, and independence of his crown and dignity—act thus, and there cannot be a doubt that his Majesty's paternal feeling will induce him to yield to the ardent and unanimous desire of his dutiful and affectionate subjects!

'This, Sir, will be your conduct if you have come into office with clean hands and upright intentions, and this, too, cannot fail to be the result of such representations. His present Majesty, we know well, holds the inclinations of his subjects in as high regard as any of his predecessors could have done. His grand-father, you cannot be ignorant, had as decided a personal dislike to your father, as his present Majesty can possibly have to Mr. Fox. The public voice, however, and the sense of Parliament, taught him to conquer his prejudice, and the feelings of the man at length gave way to the duties of the king.—Make his Majesty, Sir, sensible of the public feeling at this moment.'

This is a sensible, spirited, well-intended, and temperate remonstrance. Jo.

Art. 17. *Observations on the Temper and Spirit of the Irish Nation at the present Crisis.* By John Pratt Winter, Esq. 8vo. pp. 50. 1s. 6d. Longman and Rees.

A very judicious and dispassionate Address; in which the author expostulates with his countrymen on the extreme folly, absurdity, and mischief

mischief of the conduct which, to gratify temporary passion, would deliver their island to a pillaging, treacherous, and relentless enemy. He enumerates the reasons which should induce the Irish to support the union of their country with Great Britain, and paints with strong colouring the calamities with which all orders would be visited in the case of its being dissolved. He does not dissemble that there are grievances which require redress: but he exhorts to patience, and recommends it to patriots, in the mean time, to direct their efforts to improve the mind and social character of their countrymen. He asks whether there be any thing in the parent or dependant governments of France, which can be an object of envy to the people of Ireland, and which they would wish to see adopted among themselves? We are sorry, h wever, to discover, that in the opinion of the author there are numbers of Irish, original enemies to British connection, reinforced by others averse from British union, who would view French success with something more culpable than even indifference. This information, serious as it is, and meriting a degree of attention on the part of government which does not seem to have been bestowed on it, has often before been thrown out, but has not been treated as if credit were given to it. Were it possible for the dictates of sound sense, communicated in the genuine spirit of conciliation, to call forth a better disposition in the subjects of Ireland, much might be expected from the present pamphlet. Jo.

Art. 18. *Thoughts on the present State of Ireland,* addressed to the Members of the United Parliament. 8vo. pp. 59. 2s. Ginger. 1804.

In this pamphlet, a rapid sketch is drawn of the conduct of Britain towards the sister island; a conduct which, in every view of it that can be taken, and on every principle with reference to which it can be considered, subjects the former to the severest reproaches. The object of these pages is more particularly to point out the hardships of the Irish poor, to rouse British benevolence to interest itself in their favour, and to induce the legislature in its wisdom to devise means for effecting an amelioration of their lamentable condition. Such efforts are creditable to the head and heart of the writer; and most sincerely do we wish that they may not be thrown away. Lofty promises of benefit to Ireland and to the empire were made, when the act of union was under deliberation: but we have yet seen no attempts to realize them. We shall rejoice in a confirmation of the reports now floating, that the present Ministry have some of the necessary and long-desired measures in contemplation: particularly a government provision for the Irish catholic clergy.

The real evil, which this author wishes to correct, exists, he tells us, 'in the poverty, depression, and, above all, want of education in the poorer classes, in the relaxation of industry from want of encouragement in their manufactures, want of countenance, protection, and example from resident landlords, distressed by tythes from an inability to pay them and their own clergy besides, paying rents out of proportion to the other classes of society, and out of proportion to their wages or the necessaries of life in food or raiment, not provided for suitably in sickness, accident, misfortune, or old age, a distrust in the administration of the laws, from the abuse of them—these are amongst

the causes why the Irish peasant is the ready tool of rebellion, why he has been found careless of life, and has given instances of what I have heard called misdirected courage, but which might as fairly be termed despair or contempt of a life without charms and without comforts.' Jo.

Art. 19. *An Irish Catholic's Advice to his Brethren, how to estimate their present Situation, and repel French Invasion, Civil Wars, and Slavery.* By Denys Scully, Esq., Barrister at Law. Second Edition, revised by the Author, with a Preface and Notes. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Dublin. 1804.

Experience ultimately proves that *liberal* policy is the *soundest* policy: but how many ensanguined errors are committed, and how much fallacious argumentation is employed, to buttress the disgraceful edifice of Intolerance, before Governments, esteemed enlightened, are brought to see that their greatest security and comfort depend on their justice and impartiality! What good reason can be assigned to prove that differences of religious faith, any more than varieties of opinion on any other abstruse and speculative subject, should induce an unequal distribution of civil benefits? It is easy, indeed, to represent danger and disaffection as lurking under certain religious systems; and it is easy also, by acting on this narrow principle in the infliction of fines and disabilities, to prove the fact to a certain extent, by alienating the affections of some individuals from the Government under which they live and suffer. Judicious statesmen, however, when symptoms of disaffection appear, will consider how far the persons implicated have reason for being disaffected; and, like good political physicians, they will then apply the adequate remedy. What has been the conduct of the British Government in this respect towards Ireland? It has not there acted on the same principle which it has adopted in the other parts of the empire, viz. establishing the religion of the majority; nor has it endeavoured, by contributing to the support of the Catholic priesthood, to interest it in the stability of the existing system. In our management of Ireland, we seem to have been guilty of every political indiscretion; and it is time to review the maxims of our conduct. The union professes to draw closer the ties which connect Great Britain with her sister isle: but, in order to give a full effect to this measure, we must render her ample justice. Throwing a veil over the past, which should never be withdrawn excepting for the purpose of historic information, let us in future make the case of the people of Ireland our own; ensuring their affections, and an unity of effort with us in every thing which concerns the welfare of the empire, by admitting them to all the privileges of British subjects. If, fearing the resentment of an injured party, we cannot at once grant to the Catholics complete emancipation, let us make some provision for the maintenance of their clergy; and let the improvement of the comforts of the poorer inhabitants of Ireland be our particular care. The Irish are a generous nation; and if we treat them as fellow-subjects, they will not be ungrateful.

France wishes to detach Ireland from us; and the disaffected, goaded by a sense of their wrongs, may be ready to listen to the suggestions of the enemy: but, by joining with France against Great Britain,

Britain, she would inflict on herself a most incalculable evil. United under the same sovereign, and placed together in the same part of the ocean, our interest is one; and he is alike the foe to both, who endeavours in any way to disseminate the germs of discord.

The Irish, in the midst of all their complaints, are thoroughly sensible of having committed some political errors, and are therefore in that state of mind which is most favorable to rational expostulation. Mr. Scully's Address, now before us, is not only well intended, but well calculated to unite with their sentiments and feelings at the present juncture. While he complains that 'Government violated its faith with the Irish people, and caused a peal of indignant complaint to ring from Derry to Dingle, and from Westport to Wexford;' while he hopes that 'his Majesty's Ministers will unyoke the Catholics from the code of Intolerance, and break down the ingnominious barrier which separates them from their fellow-subjects;' he preaches loyalty and obedience,—reprobates rebellion and civil war,—shews to his countrymen that the advantage of their situation, as united with Great Britain, is superior to any which they could reap from throwing themselves into the arms of France,—calls on them, by resisting Faction and promoting Concord, to manifest a confidence in the wisdom of their rulers,—and exhorts them to comfort themselves with the assurance that every prospect of the future is chearing and animating. He intreats his Catholic brethren to place no confidence in Gallic friendship, to spurn the insinuations of the French agent or agitator, and in case of the invasion of Ireland, to join heartily with every loyal inhabitant in speedily annihilating the vain hope of the boasting foe. The government and people of Ireland are deeply obliged to Mr. S. for the seasonable and patriotic hints which are diffused throughout his pamphlet; the circulation and due consideration of which, among the objects of his address, are greatly to be wished.

Mo-y.

Art. 20. *Strictures on the Necessity of inviolably maintaining the Navigation and Colonial System of Great Britain.* By Lord Sheffield. 8vo. pp 65. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1804.

The subject of this pamphlet is a most important one, and we are glad to see attention called to it. The regulations in question have certainly, as it is here stated, been contemporaneous with our mercantile prosperity: but whether they have given rise to it, or in what degree, we have no information in these pages. We agree, however, with the Noble Author in thinking that they ought to be watched vigilantly, touched delicately, and not altered in any tittle without serious deliberation. Lord Sheffield strongly censures the departure from them which has been sanctioned by some recent acts of parliament, and by the growing practice of the Council granting licences to dispense with their observance. Whatever doubt may be entertained respecting some of the positions here taken, no one can dissent from those which follow:

'England is not to confer free commerce and navigation in return for the vexations and restrictions which are imposed by other nations; and though the Navigation Laws were not, as they are, too firmly and too long established to be tampered with by experimental speculators,

lators, they would yet require to be cautiously and rigorously supported, if it were only because they are best correspondent with the views and regulations of other States, and because, so long as other States confine the trade of their colonies to themselves, England has not only a right, but is bound to act in the same manner.'

In combating the notion which Gentz takes up after Smith, namely, that our navigation acts are commercially injurious, Lord Sheffield asks whether this can be so, if 'they promote the employment, and augment the number of our seamen; if they encourage ship building and all the useful arts connected with that essential trade; if they consequently provide occupations for innumerable artizans; if they secure to us the carriage of our own produce, as well as the supply of the most valuable markets,' Mr. Gentz himself, he adds, admits 'that they are important instruments of the greatness and security of the State—that they have afforded a powerful stimulative to the commercial marine of England—that they have tended to secure to the nation the freight trade, that great source of the former astonishing riches of Holland—that the consummation of them has been the consequence of the most judicious policy—that they compelled the English to cultivate with their own vessels, their own sailors, and their own capitals, many branches of foreign trade which would, *otherwise*, have remained, partly or entirely in the hands of strangers—that they encouraged a branch of national industry which contributed to the security and independence of Great Britain—and that, as he quotes Mr. Adam Smith, however they may have been dictated by national antipathy, they are, nevertheless, as wise as if they had been the productions of consummate wisdom.'

If the reasoning in the subsequent passage be somewhat loose, the caution which it recommends is very proper:—'When I observe activity, and labour, and enterprize excited and encouraged, and honourable and ample wealth thus earned and obtained, under a system which few men have the disposition fully to examine, and some with inconsiderate levity condemn, I estimate the cause by its effects, and become more and more anxious to rescue from innovation a code which has been, and continues to be, productive of such various and inestimable advantages.'

Many curious and instructive instances are to be found, which illustrate the remark adopted by Lord Sheffield, that nations often inconsiderately sacrifice to mercantile speculation, or to partial and mistaken interests, the essential principles of laws and systems under which they had flourished, and which had been the object of applause and imitation at home and abroad. The itch of legislating is a dangerous malady, if it does not keep pace (which it seldom does) with the requisite wisdom and information.

We respect the intentions professed in this tract, and deem the admonitions given to public men, to beware of indirectly intrenching on antient constitutional laws, worthy of the attention of the parties to whom they are addressed; whether this violation should arise from clauses in foreign treaties, or from licences incautiously granted to subjects. It would have been more gratifying to us if, in addition to the merit of design, Lord S. had advanced stronger claims to the praise of compressed argumentation and logical deduction. Art. Jo.

Art. 21. *A Proposition of a System of Finance*, or Plan of General Contribution; which was submitted as a Substitute for the late Income Tax, and is recommended as a general Relief to the present Mode of Taxation, with Hints and Observations which Circumstances have suggested to the Projector. 8vo. 1s. Hurst. 1804.

The intention of this plan is to oblige all persons to contribute to the income tax, in proportion to their means, who have an income of 10l. per annum, or who are worth 100l. The author divides the contributions into eighteen classes, and rates income from real and permanent property at 5 per cent., and that which is obtained from any precarious means at $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. It cannot be denied that much may be said in favour of extending this tax, on some such principles as are here proposed, to the lower classes; at least to classes inferior to those which it at present reaches. The pamphlet is written with great modesty, and breathes a benevolent patriotic spirit. Jo.

Art. 22. *The Independence of Great Britain, as the first of Maritime Powers, essential to, and the Existence of France, in its present State, incompatible with, the Prosperity and Preservation of all European Nations.* [By the Rev. E. Hankin, M.A. M.D.] 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons.

We agree with this writer respecting the importance of a firm union and well concerted alliance among the states of Europe, for the purpose of resisting the over-grown power of France: but we cannot discern any circumstances in the present internal state of that country, which justify the assertion that 'it would be much easier to effect a material change in it now, than at any preceding period since the commencement of the Revolution.' How this change is to be accomplished, we are not informed: certainly not by expeditions to the coast of France. Time will shew the degree of reliance which is to be placed on the hostile feelings towards France that are said to prevail among the continental Powers; who, if they are alive to their own interest, must be solicitous for the preservation of our maritime superiority, as a source of wealth and protection to Europe. Mo-y.

Art. 23. *Letter to Sir Francis Burdett, Bart.* on the Folly, the Indecency, and dangerous Tendency of his Public Conduct. By the Rev. Edward Hankin, M.A. M.D. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons.

The strictures, which compose the substance of this letter, relate to Sir Francis's Speeches on the Defence Bill, July 18 last, and at the Crown and Anchor Tavern, July 29. Charges of seditious and treasonable declamation are here adduced against the Baronet, to which we must leave him to give the requisite consideration. Do

Art. 24. *Thoughts on the Formation of the late and present Administrations.* By Lord Archibald Hamilton. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1804.

Are Reviewers to become laughing or crying Philosophers, on the present occasion? Shall we smile at folly and court intrigue, or shall we lament the want of integrity and honor in men of talents and political consequence? Reflecting on the perilous situation of the country, we confess ourselves more disposed to be grave than facetious, while we

we contemplate the state play which has lately been acted before the nation. Never was there a period which more loudly called for a great and broad line of conduct, in the formation of an Administration; and never was there a more glaring display of little feelings, and of a narrow and illiberal system. If objections were made to Mr. Addington's administration, as not being sufficiently comprehensive, on what grounds can that which has succeeded it be vindicated? Lord A. Hamilton does not attempt to vindicate either: but he laments the mysterious circumstances which inveloped the former, and speaks in strong terms of disapprobation respecting the principles and the measures connected with the formation of the latter. He participates with the nation at large, in the disappointment excited by Mr. Pitt's second administration, which he regards as 'probably inadequate to the exigencies of the country, and certainly inadequate to its just expectations.'

The pretext for the dissolution of the Addingtonian administration was the wish of forming one on a broad and extensive basis: but, as such an administration has not taken place, and as it is generally understood that the great obstacle was a determination on the part of the Crown to exclude Mr. Fox, Lord A. Hamilton proposes distinctly to consider these three points:—how far this exclusion can be deemed constitutional?—how far, under all the circumstances of the case, it ought to have operated with Mr. Pitt?—and how far this actual conduct has been regulated, either by tenderness towards the prerogative of the Crown, or regard to the sentiments and welfare of the country?

In the first place, the principle of exclusion is manfully combated. 'It seems,' observes Lord A. 'that consistently with the constitution, neither appointment nor exclusion can rest upon any other than public grounds; and that to impute the exclusion of Mr. Fox, in the present instance, to private prejudice, or personal feelings in the royal mind, is to libel and traduce the king—And that to ascribe it to the weakness or wickedness of his advisers, is to burthen them with no more than a just and legitimate, though, in this case, a very heavy, responsibility.'

Mr. Pitt, it is contended, should have firmly expostulated with his Majesty, on the consequences of adhering to the principle of exclusion; and his refusal to accept the seals, it is maintained, would have secured to the country that comprehensive administration, for which Mr. Pitt himself had been ostensibly contending; for, says the noble writer:

'Had Mr. Pitt refused to form an administration upon a weak and narrow basis, where is the man who would have dared to undertake the odious task? Had Mr. Pitt refused to accept or participate power, upon a scheme and scale hostile to the interests of his country, and adverse to the sentiments of parliament and the public, where is the man who would have presumed to have become a candidate for the ignominious eminence?'

Though disappointed in the hope of political union, the author does not forget to inculcate political principles; and he concludes with expressing his astonishment and regret that the parties to the formation of the

the new administration, and to the intrigue attending it, should fail to perceive—'that the best security of court influence is to be found, in its judicious exertion—the best security of the power of the Crown, in its salutary limits—the best security of the country, in a strict adherence to the Constitution.'

Moy.

Art. 25. *A Letter addressed to the Right Hon. William Windham,* the late Secretary at War, on the Expediency of allowing a Drawback on the Duties upon Wines for the Consumption of the Army. Interspersed with Observations on the Insufficiency of Military Pay, and the present Situation of Subaltern Officers. By Lieut. Fairman, of the Northamptonshire Militia. 2d Edit. 8vo. pp. 88. 2s. 6d. Carpenter. 1803.

This officer plays the advocate with great zeal, and no small portion of address: but there is a considerable difference in the cases which are attempted to be identified. There are facilities for granting the exemption in question to the navy, which exist not with respect to the army; and the navy is almost constantly on what may be regarded as foreign service, which may be considered to be the case whenever it is not in port. We shall, however, view with satisfaction every extension of liberality towards our brave defenders, whether engaged in the land or the sea service: but if it be deemed proper at present to attempt any thing of this sort, we believe that the relief might be afforded in a way less inconvenient than that which is here pointed out.

We accompany Lieut. F. with great satisfaction while he dilates on the hard lot of subalterns, and pathetically pleads for its amelioration; and, had he stopped here, we should have taken our leave of him impressed by his representations, and entertaining respect for himself. Not contented, however, with pleading the cause of his brethren, he plunges into the very depths of politics, and delivers his opinion on questionable matters with a confidence and dogmatism which would scarcely be allowable in a General, or even in a Generalissimo. He decides as to the persons who ought to be placed at the head of state affairs, and points out the course which they ought to take. He recommends, indeed, to the king and to the country, the person who is since become the actual premier; and he supposes that the Right Hon. Gentleman, whom he addresses, will fully agree with him. That gentleman is certainly now of a somewhat different opinion from his correspondent; and it is now evident that he never carried his ideas so far as this writer does: though it appears, from some very delicate appeals lately made by the premier himself to his quondam friends, that he was not less in a mistake than the Lieutenant.

Jo.

Art. 26. *A Letter to Robert Ward, Esq; M. P.* occasioned by his Pamphlet entitled "A View of the relative Situations of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Addington." 8vo. 3s. Ginger.

After having been instructed by a series of pamphlets on the motive of Mr. Pitt's late retirement from office, and on the real situation of Mr. Addington during his occupation of the place of Chancellor of the Exchequer, we are enabled at last to boast of having acquired the wisdom of Socrates, i. e.—we find that *we know nothing*. If, by the resump-

resumption of his former situation, Mr. Pitt has not dissipated that mystery, he has made the subject obsolete and uninteresting; and we flatter ourselves that the letter before us will terminate a controversy which has been prosecuted with much irritation and with little profit. If Mr. Ward was not very courteous in his animadversions, it may be said that "the butterfly has now met with his match," for he is treated with the most provoking contempt, and his correctness and elegance as a writer are pointedly impeached. His antagonist, however, may in the first instance be accused of having passed the bounds of gentlemanlike decorum; and in the second, of having fallen into errors similar to those which he lays to the charge of Mr. Ward: especially in the omission of the relative, and in the use of colloquial expressions. This author is a warm friend of Mr. Addington, and a great admirer of Mr. Pitt, though he cannot much relish the recent changes; having expressly declared that 'he had rather see Mr. Pitt in opposition than a minister.' The character of Mr. Addington cannot fail to be highly respected: but, being removed from the eminence of power, his political reputation will cease to be a matter of open contest, and our readers may not be anxious for any farther account of relative situations which no longer exist. Mo.y.

Art. 27. *J. G. Semple Lisle's Letter to the British Volunteers.* 8vo. 1s. Stewart.

The object of this letter is to convey the author's warmest commendations on the spirit and attainments of our volunteers, and to animate them to perseverance. This purpose is effected in energetic but not always correct language, and supported by general assertions and bold positions. We need not inform the majority of our readers who the writer is who has affixed his name in this peculiar way to his pamphlet; we shall only remark that on this occasion he seems to consider himself as intitled to give his opinion: 'I,' says he, 'who have often bled in the cause of royalty, and whose every little leaf of laurel has been dyed in the vital stream which circulates round my heart.'—'I have led squadrons of the first powers of Europe to the charge, and more than once against the French; I have had various opportunities of observing them, and do not hesitate to say, I should feel full of confidence and security in accompanying any corps of volunteers I have yet seen to an attack on the best brigade of France.' G. 2.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 28. *The Report of the Evidence and other Proceedings in Parliament, respecting the Invention of the Life-Boat.* Also several other Authentic Documents illustrating the Origin, Principles, and Construction of the Life-Boat, and its perfect Security in the most turbulent Sea. With practical Directions. By Henry Greathead, of South Shields. 8vo. 2s. Asperne. 1804.

This pamphlet contains the most honourable and decisive evidence of the great utility of the Life-Boat, the invention of which has been the means of preserving, during the last 11 years, several hundred lives. From these testimonials, we shall quote the following, which is selected from many of similar import;

'Extract

'Extract from the Tyne Mercury of the 29th November 1803.

'Extraordinary Escape from Shipwreck. South Shields, Nov. 22.

'Having yesterday witnessed the most extraordinary escape of the crew of the brig Bee from shipwreck, that was perhaps ever known, by means of the Northumberland Life-Boat, I take the most early opportunity of giving you a correct statement of the whole circumstances.

'The Bee of Shields, John Houston, master, having put to sea in an easterly wind, had not proceeded far when it began to blow strong from the south-east, which obliged him a few hours after to put back. In taking Tynemouth Bar at the last quarter ebb, in a very heavy sea, she struck the ground and unshipped her rudder. Being now completely unmanageable, she drifted towards the north side of the bar, and at length drove on the Black Middens. They who have witnessed the tremendous sea which breaks on the north-east part of this harbour, in a south-easterly wind, may form a conception of the dreadful situation in which the crew of the vessel were situated. In the midst of rocks, where the sea runs mountains-high, so as frequently to obscure the ship, and where any vessel might be expected immediately to go to pieces, their only refuge from being swept into the gulph, was to climb up into the shrouds, which the captain, with six men and boys, being the whole crew, instantly effected. The dangerous situation in which they were placed, immediately attracted an immense number of spectators from both North and South Shields. The shores in every direction were lined with people, who expressed, by their anxious looks, the most sympathetic apprehensions for their safety. The making use of the Life-Boat was by most people thought impossible, and at all events the attempt was attended with extreme danger, owing to the tremendous sea, and the immense rocks which lay where the vessel was stranded. So confident, however, was Mr. Greathead, the inventor, of the Life-Boat being able to live in *any* sea, if properly navigated, that he, without hesitation, and with the greatest alertness, volunteered his services to bring off the men from the brig. This intrepid offer operated like electricity among the sailors; and immediately the Northumberland Life-Boat was launched and manned with Mr. Greathead and South Shields pilots. In the course of a few minutes they reached the vessel, without much difficulty, and picked off the men from the shrouds, shivering with cold, and almost perished by fatigue. One man, in making too much haste to enter the Boat, fell into the breakers, but was immediately recovered. When the whole crew was in the Boat they rowed towards the shore: and, in less than an hour from the time the Boat was launched, did they return in safety to South Shields, without a single accident!

'This is certainly the most astonishing and hazardous expedition that any Life-Boat has ever yet attempted; and from the ease and safety with which she went to and from the brig, having shipped very little water, it can scarcely be conceived what she may be capable of effecting. The joy that appeared to pervade the people on shore, when the Boat returned in safety, may more easily be conceived than described. This successful enterprize has added another laurel

laurel to the Inventor of the Life-Boat, and additional lustre to the Duke of Northumberland, and the other benevolent patrons of an invention which has rendered such important services to the cause of humanity.'

Some contest has arisen respecting the claim to the priority of this valuable invention, but Mr. Greathead seems to have a full right to that honor and satisfaction. We rejoice to learn that many of these boats have been built, and sent to different parts of the coast; and we trust that they will be most extensively multiplied. In the construction and use of them, Mr. G.'s directions contained in this pamphlet will be consulted with much advantage. Capt. B...y.

Art. 29. *An Enquiry into the Causes of the Errors and Irregularities which take place in ascertaining the Strengths of Spirituous Liquors, by the Hydrometer*, with a Demonstration of the Practicability of Simplifying and rendering this Instrument accurate. By William Speer, Supervisor and Assayer of Spirits in the Port of Dublin. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Payne and Mackinlay.

This tract and others on the same subject, together with several newly invented hydrometers, have originated in an inquiry set on foot by the Board of Excise, concerning the best means of ascertaining the strength of spiritous liquors. The Board were ordered to make a report to the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, 'of such hydrometers, or instruments for ascertaining the strengths of spirituous liquors as now are in use, or should be produced to them, in order to the making experiments of their accuracy and convenience.'

Mr. Speer has much to communicate: but, not being, according to his own confession, in the habits of composition, he has not imparted his notions neatly and concisely. However, he clearly shews the absurdity of many of the old excise regulations, with the defects of Clarke's hydrometer; and, moreover, that such defects cannot be remedied by additional weights.

In the construction of an hydrometer, many difficulties are to be overcome. If the stem be large, it cannot shew distinctly small variations of specific gravity; if small, it cannot be used for spirits differing materially in strength; and if it be furnished with weights and scales, it becomes complicated. These circumstances appear all to have been considered by the author of the present tract; and the following is the short description of his hydrometer:

'This new Hydrometer is made of hard brass: The ball is shaped in the form of a pear, being nearly two inches in diameter at its greatest dimension, and two inches and a quarter in length; the lower stem measures one inch and a half, and is in shape a prism, each side measuring one-eighth of an inch; to the lower end of this a round weight is fixed, the diameter of which is seven-eighths of an inch. The upper stem is in length five inches and an half, and is an octagon, each side being somewhat less than an eighth of an inch wide: Each of these sides is graduated for a temperature engraved on the top, the lowest being 35, the 2d 40, and so increasing by five until it reaches 70. The zero, or proof point, is marked Θ, and the

gradations of strength (numbered at every 4th) amount to sixty-six, and those so clearly distinct, that at the over proofs they will admit of a sub-division, and by that means indicate an half per cent. These divisions are not at equal distances, an error which takes place in the present Irish, and several of the old Hydrometers, but widen in proportion as the specific gravity of the spirit diminishes; and being graduated with spirits of known strengths at every 4 per cent. the intermediate per centages are adjusted by interpolation.'

Mr. Speer does not satisfactorily remove the objection against his hydrometer, that, although different sides of the stem are to be used for different temperatures, yet the results cannot be exact, because the law of expansion varies in weak and strong spirits. **R.W.**

Art. 30. *An Essay on the Relation between the Specific Gravities and the Strengths and Values of Spirituous Liquors:* with Rules for the Adaptation of Mr. Gilpin's Tables to the present Standard, for the Percentage and Concentration when the Specific Gravity and Temperature are given. By Atkins and Co. Mathematical Instrument Makers. 4to. pp. 80. Cadell and Davies.

No one who is acquainted with the old acts of parliament for regulating the duty on spirit, or accustomed to the old methods of estimating its strength, can doubt the necessity of introducing new rules and instruments, by which the quantity of alcohol in any mixture might be ascertained. This point the present authors have very clearly made out; and they have shewn that the act, passed in the beginning of the reign, employs words of very loose and ambiguous meaning. Philosophers probably did not frame the act: but who are so proper to suggest the best modes of ascertaining the strengths of liquors, by means of commodious instruments and methods of computation? Government now acts more wisely than it did formerly; it procures the best advice, without intending probably to employ philosophers, according to a sarcastic saying of Frederic the Great, "in working the state by the method of fluxions."

A very great step was undoubtedly gained in practical science, when the strength of liquors was made to depend on their specific gravities. The surest method of determining the specific gravity is by actually weighing the fluid: but this mode is tedious; and therefore, for practical purposes, where expedition is required, the specific gravity is determined by an hydrometer, or *pese liqueur*. If, however, the specific gravity of pure spirit or alcohol be *a*, what is the proportion of pure spirit in a liquor of which the specific gravity is *b*? We must refer to experiment for an accurate answer to this question: for if we mix pure spirit and water, the bulk of the compound is not equal to the sum of the bulks of the ingredients: a concentration takes place, on which the specific gravity of the compound depends. Again, the specific gravity of pure spirit is determined for a temperature of 60°: therefore the liquor, of which the strength is to be examined, must be reduced to that temperature practically, or by finding from the registers of experiments what correction must be applied for the difference of its temperature and that of 60°. The latter mode, supposing the existence of tables, is the most convenient.

The authors of this work properly observe that, in order to ascertain the concentration, the effect of temperature, &c., the only sure guide

guide is experiment: since the law of expansion is not only different for spirit and water, but (which it is reasonable to conjecture) for spirits of different strength. The point of dilatation, too, is different for water and spirit: the former being at its minimum of bulk at 40° (Fahrenheit), the latter, at 30°.

Messrs. Atkins and Co. do not pass unnoticed the effect which mucilaginous and saccharine matters have in altering the specific gravity of spirit: it is a desideratum, however, to provide a simpler test of the presence of these substances, than that which is here given.

As Mr. Gilpin has constructed such excellent tables, little more seems necessary for accurately determining the strength of spirituous liquors than a manageable and accurate hydrometer. We wish that the authors had given a description of their instrument:—it would have rendered their essay, which is sensibly and scientifically drawn up, much more valuable. The tract deserves notice, but is too diffuse; or, to use a language appropriate to the occasion, according to our critical *pese liqueur*, the alcohol of their reasoning is considerably diluted with the water of words.

R.W.

CORRESPONDENCE.

In reference to a remark of Mr. Flower, in his edition of Mr. Aspland's Sermon, as stated in our last Number, p. 109, we have received a letter from Mr. Hall; in which he 'solemnly declares' that, so far from being justly accused of a plagiarism in that instance, he 'never *heard* of the pamphlet from which he is charged with having stolen, till he read the extract from it in Mr. Flower's notes, and that he has never *seen* the pamphlet itself to this day.' We do not undertake to give any opinion on this point: we took the assertion of Mr. Flower as we found it; and we report Mr. Hall's contradiction of it as we have received it.

The controversy mentioned by *Cantianus* accidentally escaped our notice when it prevailed, and we had since determined to overlook it on account of the time which has elapsed. It would also be difficult for us now to collect all the tracts which relate to it. If, however, our Correspondent can furnish us with a list of them, and point out where they may be procured, we will try whether we can enable ourselves to rescind that resolution.

We shall comply with 'a Sportsman's' request when opportunity permits. To his query, we answer in the negative.

H. has our thanks. He will see that we avail ourselves of his hint.

Mr. Walker's tract on Wine was mentioned in our 41st Vol. p. 106.

☞ In the last Review, p. 5. l. 10. the comma after '*Lloyd*' should be placed after '*raised*;' p. 61. l. 8. for 'verdict,' r. *result*; p. 91. l. 31. put a semicolon after '*sought*.'

*** In the last *Appendix* p. 528. l. 11. from bottom, for 'taking leave of,' r. *returning to*.

Errata, pp. 134, 148.